The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 29, 1915.

Summary of the News

The American note to Germany, in reply to the German communication of July 8, was delivered at the Foreign Office in Berlin on Friday of last week, and the full text was published in the American papers of the following morning. The note, which bears date of July 21, is noticeably stronger in tone, as it is briefer in phraseology, than either of its two predecessors on the same subject. The last German note is characterized as "very unsatisfactory, because it fails to meet the real differences between the two Governments"; the attitude of the United States in regard to the rights of neutrals is reasserted; the German suggestion for the licensing of ships is brushed aside with curt comment; it is pointed out that specific instances during the past few weeks have shown that action by submarines may be kept within the limits of international law, and the note concludes with the significant statement that a repetition by German naval commanders of the acts complained of will be regarded as "deliberately unfriendly." The note also, while declaring that the United States "must regard the conduct of other belligerent Governments as irrelevant to any discussion with the Imperial German Government," takes up the question of "the freedom of the seas," for which, it is stated, the United States will continue to contend, "from whatever quarter violated, without compromise and at any cost."

Publication of the note in the Berlin papers was withheld until Sunday. It is obvious from comments by the German press that the firm tone of Mr. Lansing's communication came as a painful surprise, not only apparently to the public, but also to official Germany. With the general attitude and some of the misconceptions of the German press we deal elsewhere. By the press and public of the United States, in the West as in the East, the note has been received with enthusiastic and virtually unanimous approval. In England also President Wilson's attitude has met with cordial welcome, although the reference to the British Order in Council implied in the phrase, quoted above, "from whatever quarter violated," is frankly recognized. In this connection it is appropriate to record the receipt, announced by Secretary of State Lansing on Monday, of Great Britain's long-delayed reply to the American note of March 30 protesting against the British Order in Council. The text of the note was to have been published yesterday, but on Tuesday Mr. Lansing was advised by Sir Edward Grey that the British Government desired to send a supplementary note and therefore requested that publication should be delayed. It is expected that the supplementary note will reach Washington next week.

After the dispatch of the note to Germany President Wilson returned to Cornish, N. H., where, it is stated in dispatches from Washington, he intends to give his consideration to questions of the national defence. Apart from any exigencies of the present situation, it is said that the President has been studying this question for some time, and it was officially announced from the White House last Saturday that on his return from Cornish he would confer with Secretaries Garrison and Daniels "to formulate a sane, reasonable, and practical programme of national defence."

A ghastly disaster occurred in Chicago last Saturday when the excursion steamship Eastland, loaded with between two and three thousand passengers, keeled over at her pier in the river. The loss of life is estimated to have been over 1,500. The cause of the disaster has yet to be determined, and both local and Federal inquiries have been initiated. We comment more fully on the incident in our editorial columns.

The strike at the Remington works at Bridgeport, Conn., was settled last week with the grant to the workers of an eight-hour day. After a conference of labor officials on July 23 it was stated that similar demands would be made in munition works throughout New England. Serious riots, in which lives have been lost, have occurred at the works of the Standard Oil Company at Bayonne, N. J., which finally shut down on July 20, after various demands of the employees had been refused.

A report on an investigation conducted by Collector of Customs Dudley F. Malone, of New York, into the recent attack by a submarine on the liner Orduna, which we recorded last week, was presented to the State Department on July 23. Dispatches from Washington state that Secretary Lansing will direct Ambassador Gerard to make inquiries at Berlin for the information of the Department.

Only time will show whether the recent unusually prolonged period of relative inactivity on the part of German submarines has been in the normal order of procedure, according to which periods of activity are succeeded by periods of rest, or whether some more efficient means have been discovered by the British Admiralty for combating subaqueous attacks. At any rate, during the week which ended July 22 not a single British merchant ship or fishing craft was sunk, the only two victims being Russian vessels. Since then, however, up to the time of writing, eight vessels (apart from trawlers) have been sunk by torpedoes—two British, one French, one Russian, two Norwegian, one Danish, and one American.

The American ship was the freighter Leelanaw, bound from Archangel to Belfast with a cargo of flax, and sunk off the Orkney Islands on July 25. According to accounts available as we write, the crew was ordered to take to the boats and the vessel was then sent to the bottom. In that case the incident will probably be regarded as analogous to that of the William P. Frye, which is still a matter of dispute between the Governments of Germany and of the United States, but will not be regarded as coming under the category of acts "deliberately unfriendly." The locality of recent activity by submarines suggests the theory that they may have changed for the time being their principal field of action and be devoting their attention not so much to the rather hopeless task of driving British commerce from the high seas as to cutting off supplies from reaching Russia by way of Archangel.

The British Parliament adjourned yesterday and will probably reassemble, unless in case of emergency it should be called together earlier by an Order in Council, on September 14.

Dispatches from Christiania on July 23 announced that the British Government had expressed regret to the Norwegian Government for the violation by British warships of Norwegian territorial waters, especially by the seizure of a German steamer within the three-mile limit.

Sir James Murray, the editor-in-chief of the "New English Dictionary," died on Monday at Oxford, England.

Cablegrams received by the State Department from Peking last week stated that from 80,000 to 100,000 lives had been lost in the recent floods near Canton, China.

The text of a somewhat remarkable document, signed by the committee of the German Humanity League and addressed to its associates and to friends in Europe and America, was cabled from London under date of July 20. The manifesto consists of a bitter arraignment of Prussian militarism and aggression.

The situation in the Balkan states has been the subject of much speculation during the past week. On Monday was published a report, apparently well authenticated, but not, as we write, officially confirmed, that Turkey had ceded to Bulgaria the Turkish part of the Dedeaghatch Railway. The dispatch from Sofia declared that "the agreement implies no engagement of a political character," but it is generally considered unlikely that Turkey would make so considerable a concession unless she were to obtain in return some tangible advantage, at the least a neutrality that would be "friendly" to the extent of permitting the passage of contraband to Turkey. On the other hand, speaking in the House of Commons on July 21, on a motion for an additional war credit of $750,000,000, Mr. Asquith made the significant statement that "advances to our allies might also grow as adhesions to our cause of those states which did not take part in the war in its early stages came forward." The reference to the Balkan states is unmistakable, and would hardly have been made unless the Prime Minister had strong grounds for believing that the active adherence of one or more of them to the cause of the Allies was to be expected in the near future.

News was received from Hayti on Tuesday that the revolutionary movement against President Guillaume, which broke out under the leadership of Dr. Rosalvo Babo last March, had assumed more serious proportions. There was severe fighting at Port-au-Prince on Tuesday.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The Week

One insinuation, or complaint, of the German press, in commenting on the American note, is familiar. The United States, it again asserts, is playing England's game. The "British shadow" rests upon the White House. This has been said so often before that we suppose the German editors couldn't help repeating it. But they can scarcely believe it. For unless they have failed to read President Wilson's notes with due attention, they must have discovered two things: the clearest differentiation of the American case, and the plain indication that we do not propose to overlook any just grievances which Great Britain may have given us in the war. If this is not obvious in Germany it certainly is in England. The English press is not so blind as not to perceive in the note to Germany a distinct implication that, as the *Manchester Guardian* puts it, "in President Wilson's opinion this country is an offender against the principle of the freedom of the seas." It adds that the note "may well occasion some very serious reflections" in England. Yet we fancy that the German newspapers will go on with their silly talk about American subservience to Great Britain! The truth is that our Government has limited itself to insisting upon the rights of neutrals, and particularly those of Americans.

Several German newspapers protest against the idea that an "academic professor" in Washington can lay down international law for Germany. This is dangerous trifling. And still more dangerous is the assumption that German arms may do whatever "military necessity" is thought to dictate. Even in an ordinarily sober paper, the *Vossische Zeitung*, we read: "Victory over the enemy is the supreme law for every belligerent." This is the doctrine of stark outlawry. If it were once to be admitted, there would be an end, not merely of the rules of war, but of civilization and humanity. Nobody would be safe, for no right would be respected. If a ship may be sunk without warning because it carries munitions of war, despite the fact that hundreds of noncombatants are killed, then a ship may be sunk similarly because it is going back to get a cargo of ammunition, or because it is carrying food or clothes that may help keep alive the civilian population of an enemy country. There is simply no limit to the theory of "military necessity," once it is set up and made operative. And any nation which, in the madness of war, has got such an insane notion into its head ought to make haste to get it out again. For the civilized world will never consent thus to be placed at the mercy of barbarism.

A vivid reminder of the insecure and perilous footing of our relations with Germany has been given by the news of the sinking of another American ship by a German submarine. It is appalling to think that the two countries might be plunged into hostilities through the rash act of a naval commander, yet that possibility has all along existed. In the case of the Leelanaw warning was given, and all pains were apparently taken to secure the safety of the crew. The affair then appears to be very like the sinking of the Frye by the Eitel Friedrich. That was admitted by the German Government to be in violation of our treaty rights. A similar admission may be made now by Germany, with a like offer to pay damages. Our Government may be depended upon to take the proper steps. But there is no denying the gravity of the occurrence, both in itself and as an indication of what may happen any day to take the whole question out of the realm of peaceful negotiations.

Prof. Theodore S. Woolsey had an article in *Leslie's Weekly* last week on "The Case for the Munitions Trade." It is a statement admirable in its compact completeness. The chief questions of law, policy, and morals involved are touched with a sure and firm hand, and the conclusion reached is that "every belligerent has bought, every neutral has allowed its citizens to sell, munitions since modern war began." One might not have thought this true after reading Austria's protest to our Government against the present shipment of arms from the United States. Yet it will be easy for our State Department to show that the protest by Austria overlooks not only the well-settled provisions of international law and the Hague Conventions, but her own practice in the past. In our Civil War, for example, Austria freely supplied the Confederate army with rifles, cannon, shells, and other material of war. The proof is ample. In Jefferson Davis's "Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government," he mentioned the early sending of an officer to Europe "to buy and to make contracts for arms and munitions." This was Major Caleb Huse, a graduate of West Point. Davis quoted a letter from him, written from London, December 30, 1861, in which he spoke of the "immense" stores of rifles, powder, etc., on the docks ready for shipment. And this same Major Huse afterwards published a little work on "The Supplies for the Confederate Army," on pages 26 and 27 of which we find an interesting account of his experience in buying arms in Austria.

Col. Roosevelt had a "bully" time last week at San Francisco, and he made the most of it. But can he be sure that the American people are not getting just a bit tired of hearing him prove, for the hundredth time, that he is the only President who never made a mistake, and that everybody is entirely wrong who does not agree with him in every respect? The Athenians banished Aristides because they were wearied of hearing him called the just. Would they have waited so long as they did if Aristides had gone up and down vociferating that he was the only just man in Greece? And Americans, just at this time, have special reasons for irritation at a public man who shouts about the fearful mismanagement of affairs at Washington. We are facing a crisis in our foreign relations. The rest of us are trying to keep still, and by restraint and patience to help the President discharge his delicate and difficult task. Nobody can take it out of his hands by railing at him; and the country as a whole, mindful of this fact, shows a strong desire to uphold President Wilson. And this is the juncture which the Colonel, a master of flouts and jeers, seizes to endeavor to kick up a rumpus.

With Republican Presidential candidates as thick as blackberries, we see no reason why Mayor Thompson of Chicago should not put himself forward. He announces his willingness to make the sacrifice, provided "the younger element of the Republican party wills it." We should say that it must be a very young element that would take Mayor Thompson at his own valuation. He is ready with a "tentative platform." It will contain planks against the income tax, unless the Government provides an income to be taxed, and another against "a war tax when our country is not at war." Then, too, the Mayor is to make everybody prosperous by a high tariff. But why does he speak of all this as especially appealing to the younger element? His body of doctrine is hoary with age. It is at least as old as Absalom, who was one of the earliest politicians to ask for votes on the ground that if only *he* were king, everybody would be fat and flourishing. And a high-tariff youth-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ful! It was long tottering, senile and decrepit, on the edge of the grave into which it finally fell two years ago.

To those responsible for the choice of American diplomats, Senator Phelan's report on the career of Minister Sullivan offers a clear definition, in certain respects, of what such officials should not be. They should not be men of illiberal general education, uninformed on the ordinary legal, political, and economic questions that are their routine work. They should not lack all the finer graces of manner, trying to atone for tactlessness and boorishness by a certain back-slapping amiability. They should not be so devoid of judgment as to permit themselves to be drawn into compromising situations with business interests affected by their authority, as to write slanderous letters about the character of the people among whom they represent our Government, and as to play a part in the partisan quarrels of that people. They should not, in brief, interpret the office of Minister from one nation to another as something like the office of a careless commercial "drummer" between two firms. "Tested by ordinary standards," says Senator Phelan, "there could scarcely have been any general expectation that the training, education, and experience of James M. Sullivan would have resulted in his acquiring those attainments needed." This the Department of State should have seen. His task was one of peculiar delicacy and responsibility. He succeeded only in earning the distrust of the Dominican people, and the contempt of the representatives of other countries stationed in Santo Domingo.

What shall we think one day of the fact that among the matters investigated and placed on record by the research department of an educational institution was the number of lynchings committed in the country, the supposed crimes for which they constituted the punishment, and other circumstances about them? This is the grim task at Tuskegee. The showing for the first half of the present year is an increase of 60 per cent. in this form of lawlessness. Of the victims, twenty-four were negroes and ten were white. Eight of the whole number of lynchings occurred in Georgia. The striking feature of this group of crimes is the ground of them. Only seven were due to accusations of attacks upon women. Some were brought about by accusations of stealing, cotton, hogs, and cows being the objects missing. Here, then, we must have a new justification for resort to this out-of-court method of punishing offenders. According to the law, the stealing of even the objects named does not constitute a capital crime. In these cases, therefore, lynching becomes necessary, not because the criminal may not be convicted, but because he cannot be punished as severely as the plaintiff desires.

Mr. Gompers is quoted as saying that he is prepared to make good his statement that a German emissary had attempted to bribe labor men to bring about strikes in American ammunition factories. Until evidence of this nature is produced, the public will naturally be governed in its view of the probabilities of the matter by the course of events. There has been an epidemic of strikes and disturbances, in all manner of industries connected with the production and shipping of war supplies. Some of these appear to have been quickly settled, but on the other hand the indications are that there are plenty more to come. It may be possible to judge from the circumstances whether they are ordinary bona-fide labor movements or the result of alien instigation in the interest of a belligerent Power. But the matter is too serious to be left entirely to that kind of judgment. Without undertaking to pass upon the truth of the assertions of foreign machination or conspiracy, we feel that the question is one that should engage the earnest attention of the Federal authorities. Doubtless agents of the Government have already been at work quietly investigating the matter. Whether such inquiry will have the effect of quieting suspicion or of confirming it, the result in either case would be valuable. And in the latter event, it would become the duty of the Government to take measures to protect American producers against alien interference with their lawful business.

"That the Government is wofully and pitiably lacking in ordnance, in field-guns, in all the equipment that modern warfare has made essential to successful operations, is known to every military man and every military authority within this country." Thus Mayor Mitchel of New York pays his respects to the able and industrious men who constitute the Ordnance Corps of the army. Presumably he has not read the testimony given before the House Committee on Appropriations by the Chief of Ordnance, Gen. Crozier, Secretary Garrison, Gen. Weaver, Chief of Coast Artillery, and others. Gen. Crozier testified (February 9 last) that, given certain alterations to make possible a greater elevation of our seacoast guns, which can be quickly done at a slight cost, our fortifications "will be of such power that naval officers would not put their ships against them in a fight." These alterations, he said, would give our guns a range of 17,000 yards, which could even be increased to 19,500 by the use of a lighter projectile, thus practically equalling the range of the newest British super-Dreadnought. He did not hesitate to stake his professional opinion upon our defences being "adequate for maintaining a successful combat with vessels of war armed with any gun which is now under construction anywhere in the world to my knowledge." Secretary Garrison, too, declared his faith in our fortifications, while Gen. Weaver, in charge of our coast defences, said: "I know of no fortifications in the world, as far as my reading, observation, and knowledge go, that compare favorably in efficiency with ours."

The mode in which problems in industrial invention may be attacked by organized endeavor is well indicated by some of Britain's proposals for her War Board. The London *Nation* remarks that both the submarine and torpedo suggest only a series of physical problems. They have speed, momentum, and move in a physical medium. The difficulties they raise may be investigated as in a college laboratory. Indeed, the article proceeds, there are various lines of research which might be taken up in connection with the mere deflection of a torpedo. "To direct a torpedo, the submarine officer must have taken the bearings of the ship, and must steer his torpedo by these bearings. Is there no means of putting his compass out of order?" Other proposals are for the development of submarine signalling, the repulsion of air-attacks by blinding searchlights, and the setting off of explosives at a distance. The war has imparted impetus to organized invention in Germany and England simply because it has given unusual prominence to certain necessities, and has brought home the need of concentrating upon them. Were there a peaceful field in which the general demand for meeting an emergency should be as great, the public interest in organized invention there would be as strong. Just so far as it is appreciated that progress depends upon that comprehensive activity which—in engineering phrase—ascertains "the state of the art" by reviewing all related knowledge, and brings every useful scientific fact into connection with every

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

plausible hypothesis, so far will organization be demanded.

It is time that our own agencies of defence took a few lessons in enterprise from our great manufactories. But a greater good would be served if the country as a whole could be made to take the same interest in the labor of industrial invention that the world is now taking in organizing military invention. The informed few have never lacked such interest. "Every thoughtful man of science," Sir Michael Foster, of Cambridge, once remarked, "who looks round on what others besides himself are doing will tell you that nothing weighs more heavily upon his mind than this: the multitude of questions crying aloud to be answered, the fewness of those who have at once the ability, the means, and the opportunity of attempting to find the answers." The various scientific War Boards should constitute a powerful if indirect plea for the greater encouragement of scientific research and of invention in all fields.

Caught as the express companies have been between the two fires of the parcel post and the reduction of rates effective in February, 1914, there will be general approval of the decision of the Interstate Commerce Commission granting a scale of charges from one to four per cent. higher. It has been well known that, with the exception of those of the Southern and Wells Fargo Companies, express dividends have steadily decreased. The Commission's figures show how marked was the loss in revenue caused by the rate decision which became operative last year. For the full year of 1913 preceding the cut in rates, the decline in the gross income of all the companies amounted to about $2,500,000. For the year following there was a decrease, according to the press reports, of more than $13,500,000. "As a whole," the Commission admits of the companies, "they are operating at a loss." The new rates do not approach those of 1913, but they will afford substantial relief. Above all, they may be interpreted as another guarantee of the desire of the Commission to treat business liberally, and to correct hasty or mistaken decisions.

There is unusual fitness in setting up a tablet to commemorate Stevenson's residence at Saranac Lake. The same sculptor—Gutzon Borglum—has already erected one at Stevenson's Californian home. Other authors, as Kipling in Vermont, are commonly unaffected by brief foreign sojournings. To Stevenson the setting was as often as not the inspiration of his stories, and the wintry stillness of Saranac was one of the impressions that cried aloud for an appropriate narrative. The best portions of "Ballantrae" are by no means those detailing the journey of the land-steward and his master through the uncleared forests of America, but the romanticism of the book may be claimed as the romanticism of the place where it was written. His American marriage, his American collaboration, his publications in an American magazine, give us no such reason for special remembrance of Stevenson as this response to American scenes. But we show little consistency in the erection of a tablet of this kind while the haunts and the residences of so many American writers are unmarked, and places so well known as the House of the Seven Gables are virtually uncared for.

Only by a relief map can the natural obstacles met by the Italians in their push across the Isonzo be appreciated. The Isonzo, rising at Caporetto and flowing one hundred miles to the sea, has been in itself a serious barrier, especially as its rapid current has been swollen by rains; and in the valley of Gorizia it is from 900 to 1,500 feet in width. On the upper Isonzo, from its source to Tolmino, the river is faced on the Austrian side by a branch of the Julian range, a wall reaching heights of from 6,000 to 7,200 feet; while on the Italian side are peaks approaching 5,000 feet. Below this range and stretching south to Gorizia, the natural bastion is on the left of the river, in the shape of the plateaus of Laschek and Tarnova, covered with forests and admirably adapted to defence. South of Gorizia, to the sea, the Vipacco hills separate the plateau of Tarnova from that of Corso, only three hundred feet in height, on which the Italians have now a secure footing. They have lost much time from unfavorable weather.

If Sir James Murray did not live to finish the enormous work upon which he had been engaged for a generation, he came much closer to doing so than almost any one had expected. For years there has been a kind of rivalry between him and his great undertaking, the "New English Dictionary," as to which of them would be the slower to take its place in the catalogue of completed things. He lived to see the tenth and final volume well on its way, and so has missed by but a year or two the attainment of a goal which his friends rather hoped than believed he could reach. But he might have missed it by a much wider margin without impairing the uniqueness of his labor. For an adequate comparison to the immense project which never daunted him one must go outside the field of writing. His activities were rather like those of a man for whom no English word seems so suitable as the French *entrepreneur*. He was an organizer of scholarship, calling for recruits, as Sir Walter Raleigh called for them in the days of his dreams of a flourishing Virginia, and leading them into half-explored or virgin territory, there to spy out the land as a preliminary to setting down what they found, with such accuracy and fulness that no one else should need to go over the ground again, except to supply a detail here and there or to cross an occasional t or dot an occasional i.

But the greatness of his task lay less in its mere magnitude than in its infinity of detail. "Ten, twenty, or thirty letters," the editor remarked in the preface to Volume I, containing the words under A and B, "have sometimes been written to persons who, it was thought, might possibly know, or succeed in finding out, something definite on the subject; and often weeks have passed, and 'copy' advanced into the state of 'proof,' 'proof' into 'revise,' and 'revise' even into 'final' before any results could be obtained. It is incredible what labor has had to be expended, sometimes, to find out the facts for an article which occupies not more than five or six lines; or even to be able to write the words 'Derivation unknown,' as the outcome of hours of research and of testing the statements put forth without hesitation in other works." It is partly its unique comprehensiveness, even more its unrelenting testing of "statements put forth without hesitation in other works," that makes Murray's Dictionary a veritable Authorized Version of the English language. Yet not its least interest must always be the man who made it. When the project was first planned, he was assistant master of Hawick Grammar School, in the neighborhood of his birthplace. When he revived the idea, he was an assistant examiner in English at the University of London, and president of the London Philological Society. But his learning did not make him less a man. His prime qualification for his life's task was the adventurous spirit that never failed him in toiling at the work, "which," as he once wrote, quoting from Dr. Johnson's preface to his less ambitious Dictionary, "would in time be ended, though not completed."

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

THE SUM OF THE WHOLE MATTER

There is a difference between an ultimatum and a last word. It is not an ultimatum which the Government of the United States has sent to that of Germany, but it is a last word. That is to say, the note delivered at Berlin on July 23 is intended to put an end to the controversy which has existed between the two countries since May 7. The evident purpose of President Wilson is to make it impossible for the German Government longer to evade the issue, or to offer any more shifts or suggestions which are aside from the plain and simple merits of the case.

These are again stated by the note to Germany with entire explicitness and with a clearness and firmness that are wholly admirable. There can be no further excuse for "misunderstandings" in Berlin. If in that capital there lingered any illusions created by the Bryan-Dumba conversation, the last of them must be dissipated now. The note is obviously most serious; taken seriously in Washington; to be taken seriously in Berlin. If the German Foreign Office has been misinformed, or has suffered itself to be misled, as to the real state of American sentiment, or the solemn earnestness of the American Government, its eyes must now be fully opened to the truth. Not Dr. Dernburg, not Herr Gerhard—not any German agent or purveyor of reports from the United States—can longer blink the facts. In this sense, at least, the President has made an end of controversy. None can hereafter be blind to exactly what he means and what he will do. In addition to renewing his demands for satisfaction on the score of past outrages, he serves explicit notice that any repetition of them will be regarded as "deliberately unfriendly." That, of course, is the diplomatic phrase for act of war.

This latest note of our Government is to be read in connection with the two that have preceded it. The three make a whole. They are one in body of doctrine; they have a common logic; they breathe the same spirit of indignation at rights violated and humanity trampled upon; and they are eloquent of the same demand for law and justice. Some may wonder that the latest note does not make more of the case of the Lusitania. But there was no reason for going over it again. And, besides, the essence of it lies in the quiet assertion of the belief of our Government "that the Imperial Government will no longer refrain from disavowing the wanton act of the naval commander in sinking the Lusitania, or from offering reparation for the American lives lost, so far as reparation can be made for a needless destruction of human life by an illegal act." There could not well be anything more explicit than that. It catches up all that our Government has said before on the same subject, and gives it a sharper edge.

As a mere piece of writing the note calls for high praise. Its argumentative skill is of the deftest kind. The reasoning of the German Government is turned against itself in a deadly way; and the makeshift proposals of Minister von Jagow are brushed aside as really aggravating the original offence. And in direct statement the note has a power all the greater for the way in which it keeps passion latent. The language vibrates with deep feeling, but there is no rough hectoring. Nor is it merely that the President desired to make use of the terms of conventional diplomatic politeness. There is truth as well as courtesy in his reminder to Germany that she and the United States have stood together for the freedom of the seas. This is no aimless flattery. It undoubtedly refers to the fact that on the proposals made at The Hague for the immunity of private property at sea, Germany voted with the United States—for the historic contention of the United States—and against Great Britain. This frank admission, besides being a guarantee of this Government's impartiality and entire neutrality, is used by the President with great effect in calling upon Germany here and now to make good her professions of the past.

One misunderstanding, or misrepresentation of the note in Germany, appears in the article of the naval expert, Capt. Persius, in the *Berliner Tageblatt*. He declares that the note "expresses a determination to rob us of the weapon to which we pin the greatest hopes in the war on England." But when has the Government of the United States objected to submarine warfare, so long as it was conducted in accordance with the rules of international law and the elementary dictates of humanity? In the latest note itself mention is made of the fact that the German submarines have latterly shown a disposition to submit to the established laws of war. If they do that, we have nothing more to say. They may sink every ship of war that they can catch; they may freely exercise the right of visit and search; if they overhaul a merchantman under a belligerent flag, they may destroy her, after providing for the safety of the non-combatants on board; they may stop neutral ships, to find out if they have contraband in the cargo. In other words, the submarines may do exactly what any other war vessel may do; but what the others are forbidden to do, they are forbidden to do. They may not attack neutral ships. They must not imperil or take the lives of Americans on the high seas. But in legitimate warfare the submarines are not in danger of being hampered by anything the United States has said or may do. The nonsense on this subject which has been printed in the German press—and the German-American press also—is patent, and ought not to be repeated.

Amid the mass of newspaper comment upon the note, it is interesting to observe the utterances of this same German-American press. They are not all in a similar tone. A few complain that the President is seeking to force a war upon Germany. But other German-American editors believe that the President has yielded something, as the German Government has also done, and that the difficulty can be solved by further concessions. All will hope so. But it is plain that the concessions on the main principle will have to come from Germany. On that, our Government is committed irrevocably. There it stands. It can do no other. What the result is to be, it is for the German Government to decide. Its answer will be awaited by Americans hopefully, but with a steadfast determination to stand by the right, as God gives them to see the right.

THE CHIEF LESSON OF THE EASTLAND CALAMITY.

To the horror of the Eastland disaster, no touch of poignant anguish is wanting. Not only does it surpass almost all records in the sacrifice of human lives, heightened in its sadness by contrast with the joyful spirit of the thousands of holiday-makers a moment before the disaster, but in this awful event, more than in any other that we can recall, there is driven home to us the sense of its utter needlessness. A fire, an explosion, a collision—one feels that all the precaution in the world may not suffice to prevent the occurrence, some time or other, of a disaster brought about by causes such as these. But for a great ship to turn over on its side while still moored to its dock, and that so suddenly as to cause the death of the greater part of its two or three thousand passengers—this, one is entitled to say without hesitation or reserve, should be ab-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

solutely impossible, and is absolutely inexcusable.

How it did come to happen will be made the subject of the most searching examination, by both the local and the Federal authorities. We shall not attempt to forestall the result of these inquiries. But there can be no doubt of the nature of at least one of the elements that have gone to the bringing about of the terrible result. And to dwell upon that element in the matter is the prime duty of any one who, at this stage of the case, wishes to aid in drawing from the disaster a lesson of real usefulness. Whatever specific faults on the part of inspectors, or acts of carelessness on the part of captain or crew, may prove to have been committed, there is one general fault which we know prevails in a lamentable degree in our country and which unquestionably had a vital share in making the calamity to the Eastland possible.

The fault to which we have reference is the unwillingness to enforce strictly and unbendingly any general rule or principle, when such enforcement inflicts immediate pain or loss which it is disagreeable to contemplate, while the consequences of non-enforcement are remote and indefinite, and may seem in the particular instance to be improbable. This disposition is characteristic of our people, and is manifest in every direction. It was this unwillingness to cause pain or suffering to particular individuals that led a perfectly well-meaning professor to fail to do his duty as a citizen when he recognized in Holt the wife-murderer Muenter. It is this short-sighted good nature which causes the processes of criminal justice in this country to be so long-drawn-out and so uncertain as to result in a record that no less sober a man than ex-President Taft has declared to be a disgrace to American civilization. It is this weakness which causes the sufferings of a broken swindler or bank-wrecker to soften the hearts of judges and juries and executives, who, mitigating the punishment of the individual directly appealing to their senses, in that very act virtually decree that thousands of innocent persons not present to their eyes shall be driven to ruin, and not a few to suicide, through the operations of future Siegels or Morses.

Does any one think that the association of the Eastland case with our tender-heartedness towards criminals is far-fetched? If so, let him consider the kind of thing that is said about the Eastland, not by those who are making accusations, but by those who are putting the best face possible on the case. A fair sample is this, from Capt. Eames, a former master of the steamer:

> The ship itself was thoroughly seaworthy. I would have sailed her around the world. She wasn't top-heavy. I have had her loaded to Government capacity, and have run into the stiffest kind of northeast gales, and never had the slightest trouble. But she was cranky, like all lean hull vessels, and required constant watching.

Why was a ship which, though "thoroughly seaworthy," was "cranky" and "required constant watching" permitted to do an excursion business, carrying unusual numbers of people and naturally subject to conditions in which the danger of any failure to keep the "constant watching" up to mark was exceptionally grave? In view of the whole story of the Eastland's past, is it not certain that the thought of danger was present again and again to the inspectors that allowed her to continue in that line of business? Why did they dismiss that thought? Inquiry may show that there was gross incompetence or recklessness; but we are not asserting anything of that kind. What we do assert is that if the officials who passed upon the subject had taken their stand sternly upon the principle that the lives of passengers must not be exposed to danger—that the margin of safety must be far greater than that afforded by the supposition of no lapse ever occurring in the care with which the ship was managed—the disaster never could have happened. And the reason that this was not sternly insisted on was that to do so would mean a heavy loss to certain particular persons who had invested their money in the ship, and who were doubtless quite well-meaning persons, while to take a more easy-going view only meant a more or less remote possibility of the drowning of thousands of men, women, and children that nobody could name, and the desolation of hundreds of homes which nobody could point out, at a time that nobody could predict.

And indeed there is a closer point of contact. "Inquire strictly and fearlessly," so runs Secretary Redfield's telegram, "whether any official neglect or incompetence. None is now assumed, but none can be pardoned." "I intend," declares the Chicago Coroner, "to use every effort within my power to punish every person directly or indirectly responsible for this disaster. None shall escape." That is the way we all feel at the moment. But how long will the feeling last? What happened in the case of the Slocum, as regards the persons responsible for the atrocious conditions which were the real cause of the calamity? Nobody wants vengeance; nobody wants to prejudge either captain or inspectors. It is possible that no person was guilty of criminal negligence. But if they were, is it likely that the courts will try them promptly, that juries will convict them, that an endless process of appeals will not be resorted to, that punishment will be inflicted with such solemnity, such severity, and such expedition as to make the example salutary and effective? If so, the experience will be one by no means in keeping with those good-natured ways which usually characterize our dealings with these matters, both before and after the event.

THE QUESTION OF THE SINGLE TERM.

The Committee on Governor and Other State Officers of New York voted last week to report favorably to the Constitutional Convention a proposal making the Governor's term four years instead of two, and making him ineligible for reëlection. The first of these proposals is eminently desirable; concerning the second there is much room for doubt. Two years is obviously too short a time to permit of the deliberate and undisturbed carrying out of large policies of governmental improvement. If it be objected that the election of a bad Governor for a term of four years would be a serious public misfortune, the sufficient answer is that this fact would naturally be so appreciated by the public that both the nomination and the election of an unfit person would be rendered far more improbable than it is at present. With voters called upon to make the choice only at the long interval of four years, and with the knowledge that the consequences of a bad choice would be so serious, the standard of qualification demanded in a contest for the Governorship would be sure to be considerably higher than it is at present. Let us base the Governorship on the idea of giving a good Governor a chance to show what he can do, and not on the idea of getting rid of a bad one in short order.

The ground assigned for making the Governor ineligible for reëlection is that this would make him "free from the temptation of building political fences, a labor that not infrequently in the past has diverted the attention of Governors from the work the people elected them to do." But the validity of this argument is very questionable. If the Governor is really intent upon political aspirations, he may be looking to the Presidency or to a Senatorship quite

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

as probably as to a reëlection to the Governorship; and the temptation of building political fences would in that case by no means be removed. On the other hand, the man who wished to make such a record in the Governorship as would commend his administration to the approval of the people of the State without distinction of party might, through the prohibition of a reëlection, be deprived of a natural and wholesome stimulus. And the mere fact that it was certain that he could have no further power in the State Government after the expiration of his term would tend, in the nature of things, to diminish his effective power during a considerable portion of his term. Take it all in all, we believe that the prohibition of reëlection would do more harm than good.

Between the question of the ineligibility for reëlection of a Governor and that of the President of the United States there are important points of difference. Both the reasons in favor of and the reasons against the proposition are of greater force in the case of the Presidency than in that of the Governorship; but the net result of weighing the two classes of considerations is far more emphatically against the proposal in the case of the national than of the State office. The prime reason urged for confining the President to a single term is based on the tremendous powers of his great office; to make his administration of it free from all thought of personal advancement is regarded, by advocates of the single-term plan, as a safeguard against dangerous abuse or misuse of so mighty a trust, perhaps the greatest resting upon any single individual in the modern world. But if there is much to be guarded against, so also is there much to be lost by the adoption of the precaution. And while the precaution would at best serve only to mitigate in some degree a vague evil—an evil, too, which in our present state of political development seems to have little reality—it would operate as an absolute bar to freedom of national action when such freedom might be of the most vital moment to the nation. For the sake of a hypothetical and by no means certain improvement in the administration of a President unworthy of his great trust, the country would cut itself off from the possibility of retaining at the helm the one man, tried and found true and strong, whose wisdom, patriotism, and hold upon the confidence of the people, might, in a time of stress, constitute a priceless possession of the nation—the best assurance of its safety, honor, and prosperity.

Nor can we admit that, even from the standpoint of its influence upon the conduct of a given incumbent of the Presidency, ineligibility to reëlection would be calculated to cause more good than harm. On the contrary, the feeling that his administration is being watched by his countrymen, with a view to passing judgment upon it at the close of his term, cannot but serve as a powerful incentive to the highest effort. It is by no means only in the manœuvrings of politics that the aspiration for a second term is embodied. Even the most mediocre of men, when honored by the nation with its highest trust and its most splendid distinction, must be impressed with a sense of the elevation to which he has been carried, and must instinctively desire to show, so far as he can, that he has proved equal to his trust. With reëlection out of the question from the beginning, with no public career to look forward to at the close of his term, the President would be in large measure cut off from that inspiration which a just ambition and a wholesome desire for public approval naturally supply. Moreover, he would from the beginning, and in a progressive degree as his term approached its close, be deprived of much of the prestige and influence which—quite apart from any idea of office-mongering—is a natural and necessary part of the power of the executive head of the nation. It might be said that these arguments would equally apply to a third term, or a fourth; but the mere fact of a single reëlection would remove nearly all of the drawbacks we have been putting forward. And furthermore there is a vital difference between an unwritten law, which may, in time of urgent national need, be waived, and a constitutional prohibition the setting aside of which would be an act of revolution.

DEMOCRACY, MEDIOCRITY, AND THE COLLEGES.

There seems to have been a lull, of late, in the activities of the critics of our colleges. Whether this is owing to the absorption of all interest in the great war, or whether the time had come, in the ordinary course of nature, for an ebbing of the tide of fault-finding, the fact is that we have recently been hearing comparatively little of the woful ignorance of college graduates and the inability of sophomores to spell correctly or to write passable English. But within the colleges themselves the searching of hearts goes on continuously. No professor who takes himself seriously seems ever to be at ease in his Zion. Is his work doing all the good it ought to be doing? Are the aims of the college as a whole what they ought to be? Above all, is the college playing the part that such an institution ought to play in a democracy, in a vast, new, conglomerate democracy like that of the great American Republic?

Upon one phase of this question Prof. Henry Seidel Canby, of Yale, writes with much vigor and point in the August number of *Harper's*. "The Colleges and Mediocrity" is the theme of his paper, and it discusses in many aspects the age-old question of the professor's duty towards the average or inferior student on the one hand and the youth of exceptional ability on the other. An age-old question we have called it; but between the question as it might have figured in a magazine article of a few decades ago and as it is almost sure to figure in such a discussion to-day, there is, unless we are much mistaken, a marked difference. In an earlier generation, the question would have presented itself as one whose human appeal was at once narrower and broader than that which is apt to be the centre of a consideration of it to-day, and which is constantly manifest in Professor Canby's article. The professor's concern would have been primarily with the intrinsic value of what might be achieved, as seen in the individual himself, and secondarily with its value from the broad standpoint of human culture and progress. What Professor Canby appears to have in mind above all else—or perhaps what, in obedience to a dominant tendency of thought and feeling in our time, he thinks he has in mind above all else—is neither the fruit of intellectual expansion or accomplishment as seen in and felt by the individual, nor the value of it as part of the long and splendid story of man's aspirations and achievements. The professor's duty to do what he can for the mediocre many and his duty to stimulate all the possibilities of the gifted few are alike predicated on the specific needs of a democracy, and especially of just such a democracy as ours.

The main point of Professor Canby's thesis is that for the successful working of a democracy like ours it is equally essential to care for the intellectual sustenance of the common run of youth and to stimulate the highest possibilities of young men of talent. "America," he says, "just now provides the greatest exhibition the world has ever seen of successful mediocrity"—a mediocrity that is stamped all over our life in

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

every direction. And he holds that our colleges, and their professors, have fallen in with this; the "desire to do something for every one has made us neglect the exceptional man and actually favor the mediocre." But he ascribes this defect not, as is often done, to the mere desire for big numbers, but to a motive far more creditable. "It is the American passion for democracy," he says, "that makes us lavish our energies upon the multitude of the mediocre. For a belief that the right to an education is as universal as freedom is ingrained in the American mind." Nor does Professor Canby find any fault with this idea; what he contends for is that democracy needs signal ability in its leaders quite as much as it needs a satisfactory level of mediocre culture spread throughout the community. And when this shall have become thoroughly recognized, he feels that the problem will solve itself; for the resources of our great institutions of learning are now abundantly sufficient to compass both of the ends, once the vital need of both is truly realized.

With this view we have no disposition to quarrel. But we cannot help feeling that it does not, after all, get down to the heart of the matter. It is not through any calculated estimate of specific results that the cultivation of high intellectual objects can be made truly to flourish. Not from devotion to democracy, but from devotion to learning, joy in the triumphs of mind, delight in the beauties of literature, spring those enthusiasms and passions out of which high intellectual achievements grow, and which give rise to that distinction and individuality whose rarity in our country Professor Canby so deplores. So long as we have not the courage to assert the prerogative of intellect, to prize for its own sake the exercise of high powers in the pursuits of science and literature, mediocrity will continue to fill the stage, leaving to high gifts and rare individualities scant recognition and encouragement. The doctrine that no exertion of personal effort and no expenditure of public resources is really worthy unless it points directly to what is called "service" is fatal to that generous ardor which is the inspiration of the intellectual worker, and to that uncalculating admiration which is so large a part of his reward. Democracy will be well served by the promotion of talent and the cherishing of genius; but it will be infinitely better served if it is willing to take chances on any by-product of "service" which they may happen to yield than it can be through a strident insistence on its own claims.

A SURVEY OF THE WAR.

"To the question 'Have we won?' there is only one possible answer: So far, the Germans have won rather than the Allies." Such is the frank statement of an English writer on the war in the July *Fortnightly*. And the press in England is equally plain-spoken. It admits that things have gone badly on land for the Allies. Their hopes have been dashed on the Russian frontier and in Flanders and along the French front. The expectation that by this time the Germans would be driven far back from their conquests in Belgium and the North of France has been frustrated. But little has been accomplished there, and that at an appalling cost in life. Moreover, it is now conceded in England that the campaign in the Dardanelles was wretchedly mismanaged.

A survey of the strictly military situation to-day cannot fill the Allies with either pride or hope. Germany's soil is virtually uninvaded. Except for a small portion of Alsace, she has lost no territory, while both East and West her troops are occupying lands belonging to her enemies. And her latest campaign against the Russians is proceeding with great strength and precision. At last we are seeing the historic tactics of the German General Staff in successful operation—the plan, that is, of hurling converging armies upon the enemy. As to the actual result of the movement on Warsaw, there is still doubt, but to make the outlook for the Allies as dark as the most optimistic German sees it, let us assume that Warsaw will fall, and the Russians be driven out of nearly all of Poland.

On this basis, what are the reasons why the Allies should lose no jot of heart or hope? One reason may be seen in the attitude of the German Government itself. It is unquestionably ready for peace. And it would accept a peace which, from the German point of view, would be on very reasonable terms. These, of course, have nowhere been formulated. Yet the intimations of their general nature have been too thick and too authoritative to admit of much doubt that if, for example, Germany could end the war to-morrow by going back to the *status quo ante*, she would jump at the chance. Now, what does this signify in a military sense? The inference is unavoidable that the Germans no longer think themselves able to impose their will upon Europe. Great and wonderful as has been their display of fighting power, they are not deceived by it into thinking that they can change the map of Europe at their pleasure. They know what a terrible price they have already paid. Moreover, the greater their exertion of military strength, the clearer the evidence of its real failure. This is not meant as a paradox. The whole German theory of the war was that it was to be short. By a series of swift and bloody strokes, Germany was quickly to garner the advantages of her long years of preparation. Paris was surely to be taken last September. By January, Germany was to be in a position to dictate peace. But here we are at the end of July, with the prospect of the war going over another winter. Germany may be invincible, but her plans of last year have broken down, and her rulers and her people know it.

And if, from the fluctuating battle-lines, west, north, and south, we look to the large and steady elements of strength on the part of the Allies, we may well understand how they believe that time is fighting on their side, and that all they have to do is to set their teeth and see the thing through. First of all comes the great fact of their having absolute control of the sea. From it German commerce has been swept clean. The German navy for offensive purposes—excepting the submarines, and even they have been able barely to gnaw at the real sea-power of England—is as if it did not exist. And this hampering of Germany, heightened by the spectacle of her colonies falling one after another, is likely to be even more severe and telling as the months go by. A nation whose whole industrial life has been for years shaped for over-seas commerce cannot be cut off from the ocean indefinitely without receiving vital injuries. And the Dardanelles campaign is not to be thought of as an isolated venture. It is, in the first place, one evidence more of what sea-power means, and it is also a far-sighted movement which, if pushed to success, may prove far more important than any battle fought in Galicia or in France. With Constantinople captured, Russia free to come and go in the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, and all the Balkan states wheeling into line with the Allies, the German cause would have suffered a fatal blow. In that case, the Allies, too, would have their giant pincers, closing from the North Sea and from the Bosporus.

Thus we think that a cool estimate of the actual forces pitted against each other is not so discouraging for the Allies as the present superficial military situation might seem. The ultimate resources are theirs; and if determination is not lacking—as there is not the slightest evidence that it is—they will be the lords of their fate.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Foreign Correspondence

THE GERMAN NOTE — JOURNALISTIC REPUTATIONS—J. L. GARVIN.

By JAMES F. MUIRHEAD.

LONDON, July 13.

The general British feeling in regard to Germany's reply to President Wilson's note of June 11 may be concisely summed up in six words addressed by Cicero to Catiline: "Quousque tandem abutere patientia nostra?" The German explanation of why the submarine had to sink the Lusitania drives me again into a foreign tongue: "Cet animal est très méchant; quand on l'attaque, il se défend."

As in all times of great national stress, reputations are now being made and unmade daily in England. Especially is this true in the sphere of journalism. Certain daily and weekly organs, from which we hoped for better things, have shown clearly that with them the pure "journalistic" instinct has been the predominant influence—the desire to create sensation, to demonstrate their power, to split the ears of the groundlings, to increase their circulation. Fortunately for our self-respect, there has been at least a saving remnant of newspapers to which this description does not apply. Without prejudice to others that might be named, it is fair to say that the *Observer* and the *Pall Mall Gazette* are conspicuous in this latter group. These two journals, the one appearing on Sunday, the other on each week-day afternoon, are edited by Mr. J. L. Garvin; and it may unhesitatingly be affirmed that this gifted Irishman is one of the men whose reputations have been distinctly enhanced by their attitude and activity during the war.

As Mr. Garvin and his papers belong to a political party with whose councils I have generally been little in sympathy, and as I used to look with considerable misgivings on some, at least, of his ante-bellum editorial articles, I may assert that this judgment is made without prejudice and is based solely on observation of the accomplished fact. Though it be at the expense of my own power of intelligent anticipation, I have to confess that it has been one of the many surprises of this great struggle that I find myself able to extend my admiration of Mr. Garvin's brilliant literary gifts to include also his political judgment and his ethical standpoint. He seems to me to have shed, for the time being at least, all those attributes that belonged to him merely as the clever journalist, the "able editor," the vigorous supporter of partisan views that drove inevitable wedges into the body politic. He now appears in the rôle of the judicial thinker, the single-minded patriot, the national conciliator. He has shown that he is no mere "journalist," but that his aim is to make a practical application of philosophic temper and principle to politics —a problem never to be perfectly solved but never to be given up as hopeless. He has most unmistakably, since the war began, subordinated his party leanings and party loyalty to the service of the state. No party hack has upheld the Liberal Government, as a war government, more cordially and persistently. He has deprecated all personalities, and especially the efforts to make scapegoats of particular Ministers. To use the words applied the other day by Mr. Balfour to Joseph Chamberlain, he recognizes "that there are moments when criticism is not only useless but absolutely mischievous." Though he has long desired a Coalition Government as the right government for an emergency like this, and has, consequently, good reason to congratulate himself on the present Ministry, he is yet broad-minded and courageous enough to deplore openly the loss of services like those of Lord Haldane, and this in spite of the fact that he cannot be suspected of any sympathy with that statesman's military policy. He refrains scrupulously from reviving old scores; he ignores as far as possible the mistakes and faults of the past; he even compasses an almost heroic avoidance of the "I-told-you-so" attitude. Thus, though he is now as ever an advocate, in principle, of compulsory military service, he realizes that we entered this war with the voluntary system in existence, and that we must therefore work it to the best advantage until it is proved to have broken down. He sees that the only tolerable position for every sane patriot is to assume (in the absence of overwhelming evidence to the contrary) that the Government is doing its best, and to resolve to strengthen its hands in every way. He has always, so far as my memory goes, refrained from exploiting mere journalistic sensations as such (in spite of what must often have been strong temptation), and this feature is very obvious, just now, in his handling of such topics as ministerial differences or technical inconsistencies. And, while he is by no means a full-blown optimist, his long weekly articles in the *Observer* have been eminently calculated to strengthen the feeble knees and to direct our attention to the real points in our favor.

His treatment of America's relation to the war has been marked by singular understanding, moderation, and restraint. When journals, even of avowed Americophil tendencies, were publishing articles that undoubtedly gave great umbrage in the United States, the *Observer* and the *Pall Mall Gazette* wrote steadily of President Wilson's attitude with as much consideration, patience, and insight as any of his own party journals. Thus, after the sinking of the Lusitania, the *Observer* wrote: "We shall certainly not rank ourselves among those who urge the United States to abandon their neutrality" [already quoted in the *Nation* for June 3]. If Mr. Garvin has now any desire to have the United States join forces with the Allies, it is based on the belief that America's intervention, if sufficiently inspired by conviction on the big moral issue, would raise the United States to greater moral stature, completing the work of Washington and Lincoln, and insuring the reign of peace, freedom, and democracy under a supreme court of nations. For he is convinced not only of the inherent justice of the cause of the Allies, but also that their success is necessary for the good of civilization. And it is interesting to notice that he holds this view with great tenacity, in spite of the fact that he has always been profoundly interested in German thought, and is deeply versed in German history and literature. To use words of his own, Germany became a second home for him "in a manner that immensely deepened the historical sense, the geographical sense, the economic sense, and gave a practical idealism to life and an invigorated direction of effort. For this I cannot ever be too grateful, though well aware that the German tendency to over-egg every possible pudding is a thing to beware of." He has long cherished the ambition to write a "Life of Bismarck," and to attempt to write it in the way absolutely essential to show through what a swaying of ideals and realities the age of Frederick and the French Revolution passed at last into the present greater age of Armageddon.

The new Military Hospital in Endell Street is the first of its kind to be entirely staffed and run by women. It accommodates several hundred patients, and is under the management of "Major" Garrett Anderson. I understand that some of the first wounded men to arrive were a little dismayed to find that they had been handed over bodily to the tender mercies of the gentler sex; but my cross-examination of as many patients as I could reach proved that this had been a very temporary phase, and that the prevailing feeling now is that they would not for the world be anywhere else. Certainly, in all the superficial features that come under the eye of the casual visitor, this hospital can hold its own with any other military hospital in London; and nowhere have I seen a more cheerful set of patients. Given equal skill and attention, it must be æsthetically pleasanter to be looked after by these red-collared doctors and blue-collared orderlies—to say nothing of the nurses—than by the ordinary male attendants. And assuredly a man from the front must have had his fill of association limited to his own sex. Besides all the usual equipment of a hospital, there are a recreation room with a good stage and almost daily performances, and a library presided over by the well-known novelist Miss Beatrice Harraden.

CONSTITUTIONALITY AND WAR—DEMOCRACY, LIBERTY, NEUTRALITY.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, July 10.

Burning constitutional questions have been set aflame by this incendiary war in all the countries of Europe. The answers which have been elicited may bring out of the shadow certain constitutional principles of our own.

In a financial debate of the French Chamber of Deputies (June 29), Prime Minister Viviani found it necessary to go back to first principles in defining the necessary relations of the Legislative body with the Executive. He spoke "from the point of view of *contrôle*."

Now we Americans have considerable experience of the fact that the French word has not the full meaning of our English "control." In virtue of the difference we possess the Philippines, as every one who followed the negotiations of the Treaty of Paris knows. It would be a mistake, however, to suppose that the French meaning implies nothing more than a gentlemanly supervision. What Parliament claims of Government in France is an efficient check of its measures. This M. Viviani admits as a self-evident condition of any really democratic government: "Parliament has the control, Government has the execution. That is the essential principle of all democracy. . . . And parliamentary control must involve permanent session."

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

This would condemn our Congress to sit and countercheck President Wilson all through the dog days. Now the French Prime Minister's idea of what is "essential to all democracy" is that of the founders of the Third Republic. Gambetta not only adopted the formula "parliamentary omnipotence," but also, at the turning point of the young Republic, insisted violently that government of the people by the people has for its essential condition this predominance of Parliament. That is, the representatives of the people in Parliament hold proxies in blank for their constituents; and the Executive, being the result of the choice of Parliament, does not represent the people directly as the President of the United States is supposed to do.

This question of the French Parliament's powers "over" Government or of Congress over our President is not the same as that which arises from the United States, unlike France, being constituted under a "limited representative government." The American system "of the Fathers" left whole regions of human activity without state control of any kind. Besides this differing general theory of the rights of the community or state over the individual, the object-lesson of France is worth consulting.

The question of "control" is involved in the additional powers now exercised by the great parliamentary commissions and the new creation of under-secretaryships in the War Office. The latter has very commonly been considered an expedient to avoid attacks on Government itself by those who have so long held the reins of power in France and now, under pressure of war, see party grooves wearing dangerously smooth. The fact that one of the new under-secretaries has been chosen from the Republican Centre, next door to the Moderates, should dispose of rumors that Radicals and Socialists have been trying to upset the Government. The French have a proverb of their own—"Don't change your shirt in a draught of air"—which serves their common-sense as well as Abraham Lincoln's "Don't swap horses in crossing a stream."

The unanimous votes of both Chamber and Senate bear decisive witness to Parliament's deliberate confidence in the present Government and military command. However much the political underside exists, the talking about it is quite as dubious as that about secrets of diplomacy. And the exercise of parliamentary control in close commissions is far preferable to debate and open wrangling in public sessions of Parliament. Gambetta's principle was based on what he considered a self-evident fact, that only the people's voting for members of Parliament is to be recognized as "the decision of the master of us all—universal suffrage." Even so, the French people are just now in no mood to accept Parliament as a permanent Committee of Public Safety.

In Switzerland, too, these times which try men's souls have brought out low-lying differences in the understanding of the first principles of free government. In the Federal Council (reported by the *Gazette de Lausanne* of June 17) M. Hoffman, chief of the political department, thought it necessary to say:

"From the beginning of the war we have had to struggle against a false conception of neutrality, which tends to represent the state as neutral politically, but the citizen as free to express his opinions, even if they are in contradiction with such neutrality. The state is made up of the community of citizens, and the duties of the state are those of each citizen. We have therefore the right to require each one to repress his sympathies in so far as it matters to the state, for the state cannot suffer citizens to endanger its policy of neutrality."

This identification of citizens with the state, with all its dangers for the liberty of the individual, was used to defend varying measures taken by various authorities, civil and military, in restriction of liberty of speech and of the press—liberties guaranteed by the Swiss Federal Constitution.

Thus M. Fuglister, a Swiss engineer long settled in Louvain, was not allowed in Berne to give an account, even before a privately invited audience, of what he had seen during the destruction of that city. In Lausanne, numbers of the French *Illustration* were excluded from sale at the stands and shops and from the cafés, although the highly offensive German *Simplicissimus* was tolerated. A book by Walter Vogt (a son of Carl Vogt, one of the founders of biology) and the preface of another book on Belgium were placed on this Index Prohibitorius of the Government of free Switzerland. Serious newspapers like the *Journal de Genève* and the *Gazette de Lausanne* were publicly reprimanded and threatened.

This seems all the more one-sided in that most of the examples had been made in French Switzerland at the demand of the representative of Germany at Berne. It is also felt that, while the sympathies of the German-speaking cantons of Switzerland have been all along with Germany, their preponderance in both the central government and in the army seems to be exercised—in spite of a certain painful neutrality—at the expense of the French cantons. A final vote of the Federal Council showed this sharp division of race and sympathies—twenty-one German-speaking Deputies against eight of French or Italian cantons.

Now the very elementary and scant Constitution of Swiss cantons into one Federation was intended to restrict any use of central powers beyond absolute necessity. Edouard Secrétan (a Deputy and director of the *Gazette de Lausanne*) remarked at once that the "system of full powers" which, by a common vote at the beginning of the war, had been confided to the Federal Council and by this to military jurisdiction "has no constitutional basis." The Socialist Deputy Graber, of Neuchâtel, illustrated by an example: "In the Italian Parliament, M. Salandra, Prime Minister of a monarchical state, has been able to assert that measures of rigor which may be taken for Italy will still be far behind those applied since the beginning of the war in Switzerland."

M. Ador, of Geneva, protested solemnly in the name of liberty: "With profound regret I have listened to M. Hoffmann's declaration. In what he has said there is the Germanic notion of the absolute subordination of the individual to the state—a notion that will never find entrance in a Latin head. Such a theory is utterly opposed to our way of thinking."

In France, Senator Clemenceau, without interfering in Swiss constitutionality, took the concrete instances of neutrality and summed them up after his usual manner in a word: "M. Hoffmann's justice *Germanizes*."

This debate in the Federal Council and the publicity given it have produced some result. Proceedings are no longer to be taken directly on denunciation by a foreign government, but must first pass under the judgment of an organ of the Federal Council itself, which also will not leave everything to the military jurisdiction. The ways and means of not exercising freedom in governmental measures are so manifold that we must wait and see what will be the outcome. The whole thing is an instance of the recklessness with which Germany has risked her previous undisputed peaceful penetration of surrounding countries. It may be remembered that an inordinate number of professors in the Swiss universities are Germans by birth, breeding, and nationality.

It should be added, to the credit of the Federal Council, that its position has been of utmost difficulty in matters of vital concern to the Swiss people. This may help to explain its somewhat rigid interpretation of neutrality. M. Hoffmann said:

"The situation in which our country finds herself is much more serious than is generally believed. By the force of things, a deep chasm has been opened between what our situation rightfully ought to be and what it really is. In the fierce economic and commercial war which the belligerent states are waging with each other, each strives to cut off the other from traffic and communication with the rest of the world and, in particular, to make it impossible to provide through neutrals all it may need to keep up the war and assure its own living."

Notes from the Capital

THE RAPIER-LIKE MR. MACVEAGH.

The ex-Attorneys-General of the United States seem to be ranging up very definitely on the side of the Allies, notwithstanding the President's plea for the preservation of a neutral attitude by our citizens at large. Mr. Bonaparte's oratorical utterances are not more pungent than Wayne MacVeagh's published survey of the situation of the world-war. Indeed, nobody can excel MacVeagh at pungency when he has something sharp to say, and this regardless of what cause he has espoused. He was just as cutting in his retorts upon the persecutors of his saintly client, Oberlin Carter, as he is now in exposing the duplicity and general viciousness of the Kaiser's Government.

His controversial vocabulary is unmatched in America. Sometimes he draws on it for thunder, sometimes for a lightning-shaft; and, once he is resolved upon its use, it appears to make no difference whether the object of his attack is a former friend or a life-long foe, an utter stranger or a kinsman. Simon Cameron, his father-in-law, and J. Donald Cameron, his brother-in-law, have been special targets for his missiles in reformatory campaigns, and the sincerity of the domestic feud was well attested by the spirit in which the Camerons turned upon him once and tried to defeat confirmation when he was nominated for an important office. Grant made him Minister to Turkey, but that did not prevent his working, in the Republican National Convention of 1876, for ex-Secretary Bristow, who represented everything inimical to Grant, or from publicly re-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

buking Bristow, four years later, for supporting the candidacy of Arthur. Having always been accounted a Republican, in Harrison's campaign for reëlection he went over to Cleveland, and became to that extent a Democrat; yet in 1900, although a leading anti-Imperialist, he supported McKinley as a protest against Bryanism.

Among the liveliest partisan battles he has had were those with William E. Chandler and Benjamin F. Butler, in the later seventies. Notwithstanding that it was Chandler who largely planned the eleventh-hour movement which seated Hayes, and that MacVeagh headed the commission which went to launch the new President's policy in Louisiana, a violent antagonism sprang up between the two men; and when Garfield named Chandler for Solicitor-General, MacVeagh, then Attorney-General, was probably, more than any other one man, instrumental in defeating confirmation. Chandler did not forget this, and tried to reciprocate a dozen years later, when President Cleveland nominated MacVeagh for Minister to Italy; but the attempt failed.

Butler's grievance grew out of MacVeagh's work in Louisiana, where the General seemed to regard himself as possessing a monopoly of everything of interest. Their duels in print served only to illustrate the disadvantage a combatant armed with a meat-axe suffers when faced by an adversary with a rapier and long training in its use. The worst that Butler could do was to taunt the reformer MacVeagh with having married into the unreformed Cameron family. This, MacVeagh professed to fear, was such a symptom of failing powers that it "would go far to destroy that reputation for effective scurrility" which Butler had "so sedulously fostered for years." His chief purpose in continuing the controversy was, he explained to Butler, "to exhibit you as a warning to younger men, by showing them that, in spite of great ability and energy, you had become the leper of our politics, by reason of the general conviction that you habitually disregard the eighth and ninth commandments." And he added that he should not take the trouble to notice any more of Butler's attacks, "for those who know me will not believe anything you say against me, and those who know you of course will not believe anything you say against anybody."

My metaphor of the rapier was suggested by MacVeagh's personal appearance, for physically he more resembles a sword-blade than any other familiar object. Sharp-featured, keen-eyed, painfully lean of frame, you could guess, almost at a glance, the sort of phrases he would employ in a dispute. Like these expressions, he seems a marvel of condensation, for he is a small man with a commanding head, and his manner and gait mark him as a closely wrapped bundle of nerves. This does not mean that he is of so tense a temperament that he cannot let himself go on occasion. Once, when he was presiding at a charitable entertainment where "Bill" Nye spoke, he enjoyed the fun so much that he quite forgot where he was, and wriggled and rolled about in his big chair till the lecturer halted, turned towards him, and remarked in mournful tones: "While profoundly appreciating the honor done me by the distinguished gentleman in presiding here, I must say that, unless the audience pays less attention to the chairman and more to me, I shall have to retire."

Sometimes, too, he makes people hold their breath by some bit of humorous effrontery. He dislikes to pass a night away from home; and, one afternoon while he was living in Philadelphia, he had to argue a case before the Supreme Court of the United States in Washington, and discovered in the midst of his speech that he would have just time to get home if he stopped then. "May it please your Honors," said he, pausing in his argument, "I move that the court do now adjourn. I wish to catch the four o'clock train for home." Any ordinary attorney, guilty of such assurance, would have received a sharp rebuke; but this man is an exception to all rules, as was shown when the Chief Justice calmly made the order without another word.

VIEILLARD.

The Philosophy of the Beautiful

A SIGNIFICANT MODERN TREATMENT OF THE METAPHYSIC OF ÆSTHETICS.

By HENRY RUTGERS MARSHALL.

It is some twenty-three years since Dr. Bosanquet published his valuable "History of Æsthetic," in which he gave fairly clear indications of his own views, but only to one who took the trouble to read between the lines. The student, therefore, must welcome the publication of the volume of lectures* delivered last year by the author at the University of London. The book is much more important than might be suggested by its brevity; for in it our author gives us an epitome, almost completely stripped of historical and illustrative material, of the positions he maintains, and adds certain acute and just critical estimates of the views of two significant theorists, Lipps and Croce, whose work has gained prominence in the philosophical world since his "History" appeared.

One is prepared to find the lectures, coming from such a source, frankly addressed to that small group of thinkers who are thoroughly versed in the technique of modern "idealistic" metaphysics; but the author is commendably clear in his exposition, although in his fondness for paradoxes, and in his general mode of treatment, he plainly shows the influence of Hegel, the movement of whose thought is fraught with difficulties which the average reader finds impossible to overcome. This influence is especially marked in his treatment (p. 98 ff.) of the Æsthetically Excellent, or real beauty, as inclusive of both the ugly and what we usually call the beautiful. The book is replete with examples of keen insight and appreciation of Art, especially interesting being the author's discussion of diverse grades of beauty in Lecture 3.

Dr. Bosanquet's whole mode of approach is influenced by his failure to distinguish the radical difference between the attitude of the creator of a work of beauty, and that of the uncritical or critical observer. He tells us (p. 35) that "the spectator's attitude" is "merely a faint analogue of the creative rapture of the artist"; and (p. 111) that "the whole world of beauty . . . is the individual operation of a single impulse, the same in spectator and creative artist." To this one may object that the attitude of the artist is that of the creator; he is led by impulse, and in his creative moments is careless of the "world of beauty," or of any aim other than the expression in his medium of the conception he has in mind. In this his attitude is that of the inventor, of the scientific discoverer, and he gains, as all inventors and discoverers do, the joy which creativeness always carried with it. In his creative moments, however, he is, as just noted, not appreciative of the "world of beauty" in which his work is to take its place. When he does gain this appreciation, as he must from time to time in intervals between these creative moments, he at once takes the position of the observer, and his whole attitude changes. He is not then creative, but perceptive. He is not concerned with the joy of accomplishment, but with the complex impression that yields beauty. It is without doubt true that the studious connoisseur finds in this complex impression some elements of sympathetic comprehension of the artist's attitude, some "faint analogue of" his "creative rapture"; but it is clear that "the world of beauty" of the great body of those who are thrilled by artistic products cannot be appreciably involved with this sympathy, and it is especially difficult to see how one can maintain that the beauty discovered in nature may be expressed in terms of this "creative rapture of the artist." This failure to distinguish between the attitudes of the observer and of the creative artist must be borne in mind when we consider our author's emphasis of expression; when, for instance, we read (p. 36) that the æsthetic attitude may fairly be described as "feeling expressed for expression's sake."

The term expression may have two distinct references in this connection which really involve two distinct meanings. It may refer to the object that yields the impression of beauty; which object is thus supposed to bring out, or express, some hidden significance that is not given in the mere appearance. Thus Dr. Bosanquet tells us (p. 55) that "Nature has in it a life and divinity which it is attempting to reveal." Taken thus, expression can only appeal to one who assumes the attitude of the observer. Or the term may refer to the creative effort of the artist who attempts to interpret or "express" some conception that is hidden from the insight of the spectator to whom his artistic product appeals. To have in mind the definition of the æsthetic attitude as "feeling expressed for expression's sake" (p. 37) is thus likely to lead to obscurity of thought on the part of one who fails to discriminate between these two attitudes. Dr. Bosanquet gives us an alternative definition of this æsthetic attitude, "so far as enjoyable," as "the pleasant embodiment in an appearance presented to imagination or imaginative

*Three Lectures on Æsthetic. By Bernard Bosanquet. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

perception" (p. 36). Here he evidently has in mind the attitude of the observer who finds some special meaning expressed in the observed object. But he makes it clear that he does not limit his conception to this expression in the object, as, for instance, where he tells us (p. 34) that "imaginative expression creates the feeling in creating its embodiment," in which case the expression must inhere in the creative activity of the one who produces the embodiment.

To this position he is doubtless led by his sympathy with Hegel's conception of the significance of the correlation of contradictories under higher syntheses; and although he gives us no clear view of the synthesis here supposed to be involved, he is evidently inclined to look for it in the attitude of the critic (p. 35), although not without considerable hesitancy (p. 36).

In giving a definition of the æsthetic attitude like that referred to above—"feeling expressed for expression's sake"—it is, of course, important to comprehend the meaning to be attached to "feeling." The word is used so loosely in common speech, and in every-day writing, that careful analysts nowadays hesitate to employ it at all, while Croce, the eminent Italian æsthetician, whose general views on æsthetic are allied with those of Dr. Bosanquet, and not a few other authorities have held it to be altogether unintelligible. Acknowledging this difficulty, Dr. Bosanquet therefore attempts to define the term (p. v), telling us that he means by it "the concernment of the whole 'body-and-mind'"; and adds (p. 7): "In it mind is all body, and body is all mind." Here there is surely a lamentable lack of clarity where clarity is most important.

But assuming the meaning to be grasped we cannot but ask whether "feeling expressed for expression's sake" is always æsthetic, as it must be if Dr. Bosanquet's definition is to prove satisfactory. It certainly is not always æsthetic, if æsthetic is to be identified with the appreciation of what our author calls "the world of beauty"; for, on the one hand, this formula applies, not only to the product of the great artist which arouses our enthusiasm, but also to that of the tyro who fails altogether in his effort; and, on the other hand, it does not seem possible to make it applicable to the beauty of nature without altogether changing the reference of the term expression. We are bound, therefore, to agree that our author and those who approach his mode of thought are not dealing with æsthetic as the study of what is ordinarily called the beautiful, but rather with a special concept for which no more can be asserted than that it finds its most interesting exemplification in the quality which attracts the lover of nature and of fine art, and which is known to the average man as beauty. That Dr. Bosanquet is dealing with a concept of this kind is indeed very evident to one who follows the course of thought of the modern idealists, from Baumgarten and Kant, through Schelling and Hegel and the modern descendants of these great thinkers, to our author himself. Yet this quality of beauty was surely referred to in the treatment of æsthetic by Baumgarten, who invented the term, and by Kant, who established its common use, and by Kant's immediate followers in the metaphysical field; and, in fact, we must hold it to be this quality to which Dr. Bosanquet himself refers by the term æsthetic, if we judge him by the language of the descriptive and illustrative passages of his "History" rather than by his theoretical dicta.

At all events, it is clear that it is this quality of beauty to which the average cultivated man refers when he uses the word æsthetic, and he is fully justified in asking how far the later development of metaphysic has aided the spectator in the appreciation of beauty, the critic in the guidance of his judgments as to the relative value of works of art, the artist in his effort to attain his goal. Dr. Bosanquet would probably be the first to acknowledge that this metaphysic cannot be said to aid the artist, whose work is distinctly creative; and he would consider quite natural such disdainful rejection of its tenets as we find among artists who mistakenly think this aid is offered. That it has broadened the appreciation of beauty so far as it has led to the introspective studies of men like Schiller and Goethe cannot be questioned; but it must be looked upon as having been the stimulus to introspective studies of this kind rather than as their effective basis. That it has brought into prominence certain valuable principles of criticism must also be granted; but this is because it has involved the concentration of thought upon the quality of beauty as given in experience rather than because of the appreciation of any necessary implications of the tenets presented for consideration.

The student of æsthetics thus finds his thought turned from metaphysic to the psychological study of the experience involved in the appreciation of beauty, feeling sure that here alone he may hope to gain the fundamental grounds for a just appreciation of beauty in all its fulness, a well-balanced critical judgment, and a helpful view of the relation of the artist to his work. He acknowledges that he owes a great debt to the metaphysical studies of Plato and Aristotle, and even to Plotinus, and perhaps as great a debt to those of the modern idealistic philosophers and to the talented writers influenced by them, for they have given him data which are of inestimable value in his work of investigation. But he is convinced also that the metaphysical problems raised by this study can never be solved until the philosopher bases his thought upon firm psychological grounds. This position was fully recognized by Aristotle, although psychology, being in his day still in its infancy, could give him relatively little aid. It has been almost entirely overlooked by the modern metaphysician to whom modern psychology should have been an open book. It must be recognized, and taken account of, by the philosopher of our day if the metaphysic of the beautiful is to be developed coördinately with the metaphysic of the good and of the true.

Recent Volumes of Verse

Collected Plays and Poems. By Gale Young Rice. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. 2 vols. $3 net.

Collected Poems. By A. E. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2 net.

The Flower of Peace: A Collection of the Devotional Poetry of Katharine Tynan. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Silk-Hat Soldier. By Richard Le Gallienne. New York: John Lane Co. 50 cents net.

The Winnowing Fan. By Laurence Binyon. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 50 cents net.

I have not read all the lyrics that occupy more than 600 of the 1,283 pages in the present substantial and handsome edition of Mr. Rice's collected plays and poems. The excuse furnished by their bulk may be supplemented by the observation that they exhibit in a remarkable degree similarity in kind and equality in merit. Mr. Rice is versifier rather than melodist, and even his verse has its unmistakable opacities. The movement, however, is good, and the ricochet of certain rhymes at places remote from the primary point of incidence gives surprise and pleasure to the ear. For the rest, the charm of these poems resides in an alertness, an aplomb, the buoyancy and confident "So-ho" of the post-horn in setting forth, which hides for the moment the comparative fruitlessness of the journey.

What the lyrics fundamentally and fatally lack is real experience beneath and behind them, and the excursions into Europe and Asia which they copiously reflect may be viewed as rather the confession than the confutation of this lack. Greece, Japan, India, China, the South Seas, have flicked the author's spirit airily, leaving no enduring or memorable mark. Not that Mr. Rice is consciously or willingly superficial; on the contrary, his evident purpose to plumb the deeps, to rifle or ransack experience, is one obstacle, I should say, to his success. The following is a highly favorable specimen of his power:

> Day for the mind,
> But night for the soul.
> Sun for delight,
> But moon to console.
> Song for the glad,
> But silence for rest.
> God for the world—
> But you for my breast!

Mr. Rice's one-act plays, "A Night in Avignon," "Giorgione," "The Immortal Lure," "O-Ume's Gods," and "Arduin," are brief and sudden inroads into those rich old-time civilizations—the Renaissance and modern India, for instance—in which decay redoubles vitality. Like the lyrics, they are less remarkable for the booty they bear off than for the swiftness and impetuosity of the foray.

In "Charles Di Tocca," a picture of the Renaissance, the situation is, so to speak, a "carbon copy" of the embroilment more

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

trenchantly presented in Schiller's "Don Carlos," in Byron's "Parisina," and in D'Annunzio's "Daughter of Jorio"—the rivalry of father and son for the same woman. The girl is neither wife nor mistress to either suitor, and the situation, after long delays, acquires tension by losing probability when the father orders the execution of the son for offences that are merely psychological. A real, and somewhat notable, efflorescence of phrasal force and beauty in this play cannot offset the failure to impart anything like life or interest to the forcible-feeble protagonist, Charles Di Tocca.

The Renaissance overtakes Mr. Rice even when he retreats from its fumes into Palestine and the pre-Christian centuries. In "David," its chief embodiments are two daughters of Saul, one diabolical, one virtuous after her fashion, but both amorous of David and both equally destitute of intelligence and charm. Neither David, in whom, if legend be true, the youth of the world found an immortal embodiment, nor Saul, in whose obscure and morbid psychology its old age seems so strikingly foreshadowed, discloses any sympathetic or salient quality in the perfunctory handling of Mr. Rice.

In "Yolanda of Cyprus," a play assigned to the sixteenth century and dedicated to Ida M. Tarbell, the old but still fertile situation of the innocent young girl who shoulders the guilt of the compromised wife is revived with moderate effect in act i. There follow two lingering and harassing acts, in which the mainsprings are hairsprings, dynamically adequate perhaps, but elusive of the eye; and in act iv the "sceptred pall" of tragedy is not unpicturesquely draped round a catafalque of spectacular solemnity.

In all these plays Mr. Rice had done little more than fail handsomely—fail, that is, in the gallant and adventurous fashion which is sometimes the prognostic of success. In "Porzia" (Naples, about 1570) that prognostic is all but verified. The excellent main situation is not the less penetrating and, very possibly, not the less spontaneous for reproducing in essentials one of the most moving inventions of the post-Elizabethan theatre—the plot of Otway's "Orphan." The thunderbolt of act i has an intensified repercussion in act ii, and the afterclap in the conclusion is of reduced but still satisfying vividness. An ingenuous, almost Saxon, tenderness qualifies the poignancy of the Neapolitan theme, and the tragic atmosphere is touched with a blitheness which, like the azure of the sky of Naples, envelops the very lips of the crater.

Viewing Mr. Rice's plays as a whole, I should say his prime virtue is fecundity or affluence, the power to conceive and combine events resourcefully, and an abundance of pointed phrases which recalls and half restores the tradition of the great Elizabethans. His aptitude for structure is great, too great, indeed, for the chastened contours of poetic drama; he tends to structural ingenuities and virtuosities, which make the third act of "Charles Di Tocca" exotic and the corresponding act in "David" even puerile. His blank verse seems tentative and inchoate; crude indeed, but livingly crude, showing both the rudeness and the tingle that accompany experiment. There is as yet no real success in characterization; "Porzia" succeeds not by increasing the supply of that desideratum, but by silencing the demand. But for "Porzia," indeed, I should have said that Mr. Rice's work exhibits only a blithe play of sprightly talents, over a surface whose gleam covers neither reality nor depth. But I cannot and will not say this after "Porzia." It remains for Mr. Rice to show whether that play is to be classed with fortunate exceptions or with happy auguries.

The mysticism expressed or exhaled in the poems of A. E. is ultra-Christian; it has no part either in the joyous vigil of Bethlehem or in the heart-breaking one of Calvary. Celtic by origin, Oriental by culture, A. E. is the meeting-place of two ancient and divided traditions, and Brahma and the Irish Dana, with their co-responsive vowels, "answer each other in the mist" like the bells of a younger tradition. That embrace of God and man which is the passionate core of Christian mysticism from Thomas à Kempis to Alice Meynell is hardly perceptible in A. E.; it is distance, not intimacy, that impresses his spirit. His God is the Ancient of Days or the Mighty Mother; transmigration appeals to him less for its expiatory or disciplinary virtues than for the temporal immensities to which it is the key; he makes even the lips of his beloved the starting-point for a plunge into infinity.

This poetry is naturally "caviare to the general." Mysticism has a primordial right to be vague; its success as literature depends largely on the possession of fervor enough to counterpoise its vagueness. But A. E. can scarcely solve the complaining school janitor's problem of "warming all outdoors." I have a sense, moreover, in these lyrics of a vast, muffled, loose envelopment, as if even the effect of space itself were blurred by a yeastiness in the atmosphere. A. E. has an intense predilection for twilight; he loves dusky splendors and iridescent glooms. In its brilliancy, its unexpectedness, and the absence of any incisive or demonstrable likeness in the comparisons, his imagery is markedly Oriental.

In spite of all these encumbrances, to which a total defect of contour and a measure of Celtic waywardness and inconsequence must be superadded, the presence of true inspiration and of haunting beauty in these poems is incontestable. Dim and unrelated, homeless and orphaned, as it were, at the outset, they draw nearer both to reality and to excellence as the volume proceeds; the human element which had pined among the infinities, like a child hushed on the knees of a venerable graybeard, asserts its vitalizing presence towards the end. The beauty when it appears takes, as I have hinted, the form of a dim richness, a sumptuous gloom, an august mystery. I cite the poem called "Blindness":

Our true hearts are forever lonely:
A wistfulness is in our thought:
Our lights are like the dawns which only
Seem bright to us and yet are not.

Something you see in me I wis not:
Another heart in you, I guess:
A stranger's lips—but thine I kiss not,
Erring in all my tenderness.

I sometimes think a mighty lover
Takes every burning kiss we give:
His lights are those which round us hover:
For him alone our lives we live.

Ah, sigh for us whose hearts unseeing
Point all these passionate love in vain,
And, blinded in the joy of being,
Meet only when pain touches pain.

A single line of "The Flower of Peace," "'Tis warm in God's lit nurseries," typifies the infolded tenderness, the cradled innocence, the poetic and perfumed languor, of Miss Tynan's devotional verse. I quote one delightful but not markedly characteristic stanza:

O praise Him, all ye orchards now,
And all ye gardens deep in green,
Ripe apples on the yellowing bough,
And golden plum and nectarine,
And peaches ruddier than the rose,
And pears against the southern wall;
But most the little wind that blows,
The blessed wind at evenfall.

"The Silk-Hat Soldier," which dedicates its contents to the Belgian King and its profits to the succor of his people, discloses the skilful, if slightly tired, hand of the accomplished craftsman, and a patriotism in which English vigor is allied with Gallic sensibility. The best poem is "Christmas in War-Time (Boer War)":

Be happy softly, children, for a woe
Is on us, a great woe for little fame—
Ah! in the old woods leave the mistletoe,
And leave the holly for another year,
Its berries are too red.

I could wish that Mr. Le Gallienne had chosen for the refrain of his title-poem a line less obscurely musical or less obviously unmusical than "For he loves England well enough for England to die." The music of refrains should not be coy, but bountiful.

Mr. Binyon's war-time verses are of manly and generous fibre; and if they endear the man more than they exalt the artist, this does not mean that the art is undiscoverable or is unworthy of its high companionships. There are phrases of the moving directness, the plain energy, of Scott or Wordsworth, poets with whom, in an hour less intensely English, Mr. Binyon would hardly expect—would perhaps hardly welcome—affiliation. I quote two or three examples:

We give, we dare, and we believe

O wronged, untamable, unshaken
Soul of divinely suffering man.

But there are heavens serene
That answer strength with strength; they stand secure;
They arm us from within, and we endure.

O. W. Firkins.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Book Notes and Byways

THE JEFFERSON-LEMEN COMPACT.

By HORACE WHITE.

Among the transactions of the Illinois State Historical Society of the year 1908 was a narrative of a movement initiated by Thomas Jefferson in 1784 to prevent the introduction of slavery in the Northwestern Territory. The narrative was presented in a paper read by Mr. Joseph B. Lemen, of O'Fallon, St. Clair County, Ill., and was included in the published volume of that year. Jefferson had failed by one vote in the Congress of 1784 to pass an ordinance excluding slavery from all of the unoccupied territory of the United States, both north and south of the Ohio River. He was bitterly disappointed by this failure, and he turned his thoughts to other means for accomplishing his purpose in the Northwestern country. To this end he induced a young friend, Mr. James Lemen, a Revolutionary soldier, residing near Harper's Ferry, to migrate with his family to the Illinois country and make it his principal business to prevent the introduction of slavery there. This was described by Mr. Joseph B. Lemen, a grandson of James Lemen, as "a secret anti-slavery pact or agreement" concluded at Annapolis, Md., on May 2, 1784. Jefferson offered to pay the expenses of the journey, but Lemen declined to accept anything for himself. He did subsequently accept $100 from Jefferson's agent to be used for charitable objects in his own discretion in the new country. Jefferson soon afterwards sailed as envoy to France and was absent in 1787, when the ordinance reported by Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts, which prohibited slavery in the new territory north and west of the Ohio River, was enacted. In 1786 Mr. Lemen navigated his own flat boat down the Ohio River and up the Mississippi to St. Clair (now Monroe) County, Illinois, with wife, children, and goods.

It was stated in Mr. Joseph B. Lemen's paper that when William H. Harrison, the Governor of Indiana Territory, forwarded petitions to Congress requesting that the anti-slavery clause of the ordinance of 1787 be temporarily suspended, Jefferson wrote to Lemen urging him to get petitions signed in opposition to those of Harrison and to send them to Congress, which Lemen did.

The attempts of Harrison and his legislative council to get the ordinance suspended were very persistent, being renewed at each Congress from 1802 to 1807. Jefferson himself was President at that critical period, and he managed, without showing his hand, to defeat the aims of the petitioners. On the last occasion opposing petitions were sent in from inhabitants of the territory, and these led a committee of Congress to report emphatically against the Harrison scheme, which was never heard from again. Probably these petitions were the work of James Lemen under the prompting of Jefferson.

After the publication of Joseph Lemen's paper in 1908 a question was raised as to its authenticity, since it was not supported by any original documents, although the author said that there were such documents still in existence. Another element of doubt was found in the fact that Mr. James Lemen had signed one of the Harrison petitions for the temporary suspension of the anti-slavery clause of the ordinance of 1787.

Mr. MacNaul's paper,* the subject of this notice, was read before the Chicago Historical Society on February 16, 1915. The author takes up the subject not as a party to a controversy, but as a collector of materials for a history of the Baptist Church in Illinois. Mr. James Lemen had been reared as a Presbyterian, but later he connected himself with the Baptist denomination and eventually became a licensed preacher and a great light of that faith. An entry in his diary, dated New Design, Ill., February 26, 1794, says:

"My wife and I were baptized with several others to-day in Fountain Creek by Rev. Josiah Dodge. The ice had to be cut and removed first."

Mr. MacNaul's collection embraces extracts from the diary of the Rev. James Lemen, sr., running from Yorktown, Va., September 26, 1781, to New Design, Ill., January 4, 1821, from copies certified by his son, the Rev. James Lemen, jr. Also a history of the confidential relations existing between Thomas Jefferson and James Lemen, sr., written in 1851 by the Rev. John M. Peck, the leading Baptist minister in Illinois, during the attempt to make it a slave-holding State in 1824. The Rev. Mr. Peck was one of the great lights of the anti-slavery cause in that struggle. His testimony few persons will question who know the history of that time. Concerning the secrecy of the Jefferson-Lemen compact, Mr. Peck says:

"The original agreement between Jefferson and Mr. Lemen was strictly confidential on the part of Jefferson, because, had it been known, his opponents would have said he sent paid emissaries to Illinois and Indiana to shape matters to his own interests, and the extreme South might have opposed his future preferment if it were known that he had made an anti-slavery pact with his territorial agents, and it was secret on the part of Mr. Lemen, because he never wished Jefferson to give him any help, and his singularly independent nature made him feel that he would enjoy a greater liberty of action, or feeling, at least, if it were never known that his plans and purposes to some extent were dictated and controlled by another, not even by his great and good friend Jefferson; so the agreement between them was strictly private."

The remainder of the brochure consists of letters from Abraham Lincoln, Stephen A. Douglas, and other public men, showing that they believed in the "Jefferson-Lemen anti-slavery pact" as an undoubted fact. The letters of Lincoln and Douglas both bear the date of March, 1857. They are not in the collected writings of Lincoln or in any biography of Douglas, but they were printed in the Belleville (Ill.) *Advocate* in April, 1908.

Perusal of the testimony brought together by Mr. MacNaul leaves no room to doubt that the paper of Mr. Joseph B. Lemen published in 1908 is authentic history. The signature of Mr. Lemen, sr., to one of the Harrison petitions for a temporary suspension of the ordinance of 1787 is not explained, but is nothing remarkable. There were many men working sincerely against slavery in those days who were themselves slave-holders.

**The Relations of Thomas Jefferson and James Lemen in the Exclusion of Slavery from Illinois and the Northwest Territory, with Related Documents*, 1781-1818. By Willard C. MacNaul. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1915.

Correspondence.

A PERSIAN PROHIBITIONIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reading, the other day, those delightful letters of the Italian Della Valle, I was interested to find that Russia is not the only country which has gone dry by royal decree. As far back as 1620, a prince greater than Nicholas the Second, by a stroke of his pen, prohibited the drinking of wine throughout his kingdom. The prince was Shah Abbas the Great, of Persia, and Della Valle, who was in Ispahan at the time, describes in detail the working of the decree.

No one knew the exact reason for the prohibition. The Shah had recently been ill, and it may be that indulgence in wine had aggravated his malady; or perhaps, during his sickness, the notorious drunkenness of his subjects had weighed upon his conscience. Della Valle believed, however, that military necessity was the deciding cause—a curious parallel to the situation in Russia three hundred years later. Shah Abbas was obliged to maintain a very large army for his continual wars against Turks and Tartars; but prohibition was not with him, as with Czar Nicholas, a question of military efficiency. It was rather a method of economy: by forbidding wine to his soldiers, he was able to cut off from their pay the amount (by no means inconsiderable) which they had formerly spent on drink!

The Shiite Mohammedans of Persia have never included abstinence from wine as one of the tenets of their creed. Their poets have sung the joys of wine with only less fervor than the joys of love. When, therefore, the cup was forbidden to all Mohammedans in Persia (the edict did not apply to Christians), the people felt the new law very keenly. The decree was strictly obeyed, says Della Valle; and by way of explanation of the readiness of the Persians to abide by it, he adds that drinkers were punished by having molten lead poured down their throats, and that wine-sellers were disembowelled.

Above all, the courtesans of Ispahan were affected by the edict. They made every effort to bring about its repeal, and collected a large sum of money wherewith to bribe two of the Shah's favorites to use their influence with him. For, said they, since wine had been forbidden, they had no following and were dying of hunger: *Sine Cerere et Baccho friget Venus.*

The Mohammedans felt it especially hard that they should be forbidden the wine which their Christian neighbors continued to enjoy. And we may believe that these latter—Georgians and Armenians to whom privileges of any kind were seldom accorded—did not hesitate to display their rare advantage. "How I have laughed," says Della Valle, "to see with what passion, with what gesticulations, these poor Mohammedans stand about, watching the Christians who drink in public; with what sighs, with what words of envy they bewail themselves! . . . And I have laughed more at certain persons who now call on me much more frequently than formerly, to enjoy the privilege of my house; where, as a guest of the King, I may not only drink freely myself, but may serve wine to the Mohammedans who come to visit me; provided that it be done with discretion and that my guests do not allow themselves to be seen drunk on the street. Thus it often happens that, in the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

case of certain persons of consequence, I am obliged, after having regaled them with long *symposia,* to give them a place to sleep to digest their wine, that they may free themselves from the madness of Bacchus before they issue into the square in the sight of men."

Alas for the efforts of the royal prohibitionist! His subjects failed to profit by his paternal regulations for their welfare. Forbidden the joys of wine, they sought consolation in opium. So rapidly did this drug grow in popularity, especially in the army, that the Shah was forced to recognize it as a more serious enemy than the liquor which he had banned. Within eight months of the promulgation of his first decree, he published another, this one a prohibition of opium. And since it was pointed out to him by his advisers (the same favorites, perhaps, who had received money from the daughters of joy!) that men accustomed to opium would not be able to tear themselves suddenly from all stimulants, he gave universal permission that his people might drink wine as before. "In short," concludes Della Valle, "Bacchus will reign in Persia more than ever; not the king himself, with all his power, and with all the diligence he has shown, has been able to expel [the god]."

It is a judgment which any visitor to Persia will confirm. In that country of poverty and pestilence, of burning sun and biting cold, the grape and poppy alike bring forgetfulness of present misery; and Shah Abbas, were he to reign again, would hesitate which first to place under his ban.

Will Czar Nicholas succeed where Shah Abbas failed? It is difficult to believe that the habits of a whole nation can be reformed in the twinkling of an eye. But—*qui vivra verra!*

C. C. Edwards.

Douglaston, L. I., July 10.

A JAPANESE SCHOLAR ON WESTERN CIVILIZATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: After I had stayed for some little while in Paris, where the life (what an elderly, urbane French life!) well conserves itself and laughs at itself, and its unnaturalness, when it is unnatural, is that of a civilization turning through fatigue or whim into ornament or criticism, I soon found myself in Germany, the land of one Kaiser or a hundred kaisers. There Nietzsche, whether he be a philosophical "blond beast" or a scholarly Europeanized *Samurai,* with his iron teaching, exclaimed, "Lo, I teach you the Superman!" When the train crossed the German frontier, the view of nature, with the trees intense in color, with such large open fields of corn or wheat, reminded me at once of the Western country of America, not from the point of magnanimous wealth, but from its extravagance. I duly arrived in Berlin, and exclaimed: "This is a Chicago, the town of madness and wild appetite of life. Oh this is the European Chicago." I confess that she impressed and even startled me, but never attracted me; again, like that American city, common and businesslike, in sack-coat, with the inartistic regularity of her buildings and the equally inartistic statues of soldierly rigidity at nook or corner, even the pictures of Böcklin, I declared, looked to be spinning the dark, weird refrain of Poe's Nevermore. The Germans are, in more than one aspect, the Americans in Europe, in their abnormal activity under the artificial glare of a strongly emphatic light invented by their egotism. I felt that it would be difficult, even impossible, to find here the spirit of sympathy without whose endorsement physical phenomena, however great and enormous, could never become a living force to enrich and strengthen my own soul. I thought that I had nothing to do with Germany or the Germans or German civilization. Individually in the Germans I felt their incommunicable crudeness and uncouth self-expression. And, as in the individual, the German civilization is a civilization without gentlemanly culture, whose eye is set on life's strife and contest; it has no personality.

It is from this reason, more than from any other reason, that the German civilization fundamentally lacks in reflective elements. By saying that it is a civilization without sympathy, I mean that it is a bewildering problem, because it can never harmonize, by the communication of soul, with the other civilizations of the world. Indeed, to have one civilization, if it were really good and true, should mean to possess all the other civilizations; but the German civilization, from lack of reflection, thinks of itself too proudly, and shuts itself into its own egotistic castle. As a result of its defying the other civilizations, it has to fall back on itself for its maintenance; then from the passion of impatience or madness it may tear itself to pieces. And this is exactly the case with present Germany. It would not be surprising if the present war should be done with the tearing of the so-called German civilization to shreds. It seemed that there was nothing more necessary for Germany than the very lesson of spiritual perspective or inner reflection, because she has been for some time on the terrible verge of being threatened by the greatness of physical dissatisfaction, and in danger of acting foolhardily in spite of herself, just as a savage boy challenges the other boys to fight for no other reason than his having too much vigor. And Eucken failed to save the country from the danger with his philosophy of spiritual life. When he prostitutes his philosophy (what a pity!) in the defence of his country's war and civilization, it proves, alas! that his philosophy was not founded on irresistible faith. It is the saddest sight to see a scholar finally deny his own philosophy and rub it out.

Some time ago I read somewhere, in a Japanese translation, an open letter, signed by many German professors, with their usual false argument of the matter, which was more stupid than anything else. The letter said in part that they were sure in their belief that the American people would intelligently understand Goethe and Kant and regard them as the foundation of the highest civilization in the world. There may possibly have been a time even in Germany when she made much of the artistic civilization, perhaps with Goethe and Kant as its foundation, as the many learned professors wished the Americans to believe, or of the ethical civilization builded on the overflowing, rhythmic love of community and friendship; but it was the time of many years ago, when the German mind was not spurred by the modern understanding of civilization in which the creative instincts are everything. The modern German ideal of civilization is creation itself, in all the phases of life and the world in their best development; and such a civilization was supposed to be only created by the Superman, to use Nietzsche's words, "who longs to feel in his own soul the whole range of values and aims that have prevailed on this earth till this day, and to sail around all the coasts of this ideal 'Mediterranean Sea'; who, from the adventures of his own innermost experience, would fain know how it feels to be a conqueror and discoverer of the ideal." And Nietzsche says: "Such a man requires one thing above all for his purpose, and that is great healthiness—such healthiness as he not only possesses, but also constantly acquires, and must acquire, because he is continually sacrificing it again, and is compelled to sacrifice it!" The present Germans, with that great healthiness of Nietzsche—indeed, the dangerously healthy healthiness—with such eagerness, frantic in their curiosity and lust of possession, could not content themselves to stay in their own places; and from the pitiful lack of reflective deliberation or sudden falling into mental disease, they rose up from their horizon with swords and cried for the exuberant and most tragic ghost of Superman. It is, of course, natural and just that Germany shall lose her war. As the reward of her lost game, she will receive a lesson of civilization with a personality and a morality.

I have often heard the Englishmen singing Henley's lines:

> Out of the night that covers me,
> Black as the pit from pole to pole,
> I thank whatever gods may be
> For my unconquerable soul.
>
> It matters not how strait the gate,
> How charged with punishments the scroll,
> I am the master of my fate;
> I am the captain of my soul.

The civilization of the English people (the English people with the solidity of Henley's verse) is not accidental. Its development deliberately follows, step after step, the movement of true freedom, born in the very bosom of conservatism. It is free; therefore it is clean, like a pure water cleaning our hearts. It is ethical; therefore it is kind, like an earth gladdening our minds. The most prominent quality of the English civilization is sympathy, wisely regulated by their own sense of practicability; the real consciousness in the English mind rarely lets them miss their perspectives, spiritual or otherwise. As they always search for unity or harmony with the outside heterogeneous complexity by their inner wisdom, they are blessed by repose or peace. The English people do not hurry, nor do they stop. They are like a slow but hastening stream in the quest of eternity. I heard so often the word "character-building" while I was in England, and I was highly pleased to know that even the squalid, shamefaced gutter-snipes of East London would never violate the unwritten law of "fair-play." Indeed, in England everybody is endowed with a possibility of becoming a gentleman. The great strength of the English civilization is in its power of organization for the perfection of a social life in which people, from their confidence of being men-in-the-kingdom, and not merely men, keep a clear vision of life's fulfilment. As some German philosopher declared, the English civilization is nothing but a practical civilization. Emerson remarked, speaking of the English people: "Their practical vision is spacious, and they can hold many threads without entangling them. All the steps they orderly take, but with the high logic of never

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

confounding the minor and major proposition; keeping their eye on their aim, in all the complexity and delay incident to the several series of means they employ. There is room in their minds for this and that—a science of degrees." This ability for practicableness, or, to use a common phrase, the well-disciplined common-sense, has a weakness in dulling and discouraging individualism or individual self-expression. A sad monotony or colorless harmony will soon control the English mental horizon.

If the present war can be called the war of England and Germany, it can be called with justification the war between morality and energy, or the war between common-sense and dream. If England needs some force to deliver her from life's stagnancy, or to rejuvenate her, she is, I believe, not fighting with Germany fruitlessly. Whether she wins or loses, it is sure that she is learning a great lesson of the importance of creative instinct in life and country. And it is not too much to say that the present European war is more than a question of one country's fall or another country's rise.

YONE NOGUCHI.

Keio University, Tokio, June 10.

THE LATE A. G. SEDGWICK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An outline of the facts of Arthur Sedgwick's life gives but an imperfect idea of an exceptional personality which his many friends will remember as long as they remember anything, and the vivid memory of which arouses a wish to make the record a little less incomplete. But, though a fuller portrait of him would be of unquestioned interest to those who never knew him at all, it would be difficult to make effective because of the delicacy at once and the simplicity of its traits. It would call for a hand like his own, so capable of firm and straightforward, and yet reserved and decorous, delineation. One may, however, be pardoned for yielding to the impulse to set down more or less at haphazard a few of those impressions of his life and character which his sudden death brings into greater definition, though even it can hardly have deepened them.

The first of these is perhaps that of his loyalty in the friendships he formed. So aristocratic a spirit would naturally not form such relationships loosely, but he was exclusive mainly in the presence of the commonplace, and some kind of distinction in mind or nature or breeding was a prerequisite to the awakening of an interest which, nevertheless, within the suggested limitation, was conspicuously tolerant, and his friends were of as many kinds as the marked individualities they were apt to possess naturally implied. Yet it was always *you* and not your capacities or acquisitions or achievements that interested him. An intimacy, once formed, he always treated as a positive source of enjoyment, and he cultivated it in this sense. It is quite impossible to associate the idea of sentimentality with him. Effusion was a stranger to his native reserve, and his expressions of all kinds were eminently self-contained. But his friends learned that in trouble of any sort, from ordinary difficulties, from the depreciation of others, for example, to such sorrows as those of bitter bereavement, his effort to render help was instinctive, sustained, and successful. He was himself a veteran in such experiences with which the warfare of human life is so thickly strewn, and mere contact with his fortitude was, automatically, consolation.

All of which implies that his social side was uppermost. No one was ever more companionable, because precisely of this fundamental friendly quality so thoroughly *felt* as to be independent of specific expression, and constituting thus the ideal basis for the interchange of real views, sentiments, and ideas on all sorts of subjects, without danger of misconception. Conversation on these terms he especially delighted in, probably stimulated by the consciousness, which he must have had, that he gave at least as much as he got out of it. It needed no excuse of occasion, no buttress of incident or other topic; only, the moment it ceased to be sincere and serious, in an intellectual sense, he lost interest in it, and his contribution promptly ceased. Naturally, thus, he was not one who "shone" in those excesses of what is called general conversation that really resolve a company into an orator and auditors. His antipathy to the commonplace made him a little restless, perhaps, with all varieties of bores. And in this category, also, the facetious man—a type that has become extremely prevalent with us of late years, doubtless through a distorted view of what constitutes humor—eminently belonged. Facetiousness had to have an edge on it, a joke had to be a good joke, a story have a real point, to pass muster with him. The flat was, in his eyes, not so much an aggravation of the low as a variety of it. His own wit was conspicuous, and was conspicuously wit, rather than humor. Partly this was because of a constitutional indisposition to effusion, to expansiveness, and partly because, as a corollary of this, he was impatient of surplusage. Embroidery left him rather cold; since it contributed to neither clearness nor energy, its essential inapposite-ness was what struck him most.

For artistic expression of all kinds he cared less than for the truth of statements and their value, though he had the cultivated man's appreciation of the imaginative field, and his acute sense and judicial soundness were reliable guides here, as elsewhere, and promptly detected the meretricious on the one hand, and appreciated the excellent on the other. He was a lawyer—congenitally, one may say; and where it was applicable he took the lawyer's point of view. Of course, he was all his life a writer, too, but his legal training and proclivities were apparent in his handling of whatever subject he treated. He was a great reader, and his talk about letters was personal and penetrating. The classics of his own tongue were familiar friends to him, and what he read of the current product was its substantial part. His taste was sure, and based on the standards, but it was catholic and uninterested in heated and superfine discriminations. In fiction, for example, he admired both Poe and Trollope—especially Trollope—and did not admire Bourget. He would have smiled at the notion of "outgrowing" Macaulay or Tennyson. His own style—and it was very much his own—was the exact envelope of his way of thinking. It sought no external graces and eschewed the figures of speech, though it had great personal savor and a truly idiosyncratic energy, combined with economy. The last sentence of his recent contribution to the *Nation's* jubilee number, referring to the criticisms of Mr. Godkin by his opponents, "The Athenians had not been told that Socrates was more wicked," is a characteristic example, and, as style, perfect. It was the acme of well-bred simplicity, argumentative cogency, and as clear as a bell, because he simply never experienced mental confusion. If he reached that point, he stopped thinking and resorted to more knowledge.

Knowledge, in fact, was an element he was inveterately prone to insist on in every expression of mental activity. He deprecated, for example, the discussion by American lawyers of the virtues of the "code" system on the ground that nobody here knew anything about them. And he was much struck at one time by the discovery that the South generally at the time of the war was always talking about the view of the makers of the Constitution, and yet had never read the *Federalist*. He was one of our few journalistic writers entitled to be called publicists. His book, "The Democratic Mistake," is the work of an accomplished publicist. Public questions of a fundamental and legal character, notably those relating to government, interested him greatly, but less in a speculative than in an analytic way. Good government for him was what secured justice through order. Beyond that he was too much of a skeptic to be a partisan. Good citizenship was, however, as definite an ideal with him and as rigorously and self-sacrificingly followed as his social ideals, which were eminently those of the "gentleman," accented now and then with a slight edge of punctilio. Altogether, one always noted, a mind and nature impatient of the superficial and the crude, distrustful of ill-regulated enthusiasms, living habitually on a high plane, rather pointedly neglectful of those who did not, and a convinced devotee of simplification in both thought and life. If a thing couldn't be simplified, he became incurious about it, and distrustful of the quality of its attractions for others. Withal a great admirer of Kant, and sufficiently schooled in philosophy, as well as in all fields of general culture, and an accomplished linguist, but temperamentally an Aristotelian, not a Platonist, and morally a stoic *pur sang*. The inner spirit, that fused these traits and talents into a particularly idiosyncratic individuality, it is impossible to characterize. The charm this had for his friends is, however, faintly, at least, suggested by his whimsical and smiling query to one of them during a hopeful interval of what may truly be called his final illness: "You are not going to be offended because I am going to get well?" Evidently, Emerson's remark about "the neighbors" in such circumstances was in his mind.

W. C. B.

New York, July 18.

THE HARVARD ENGLISH PLAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of July 1 (p. 14) J. M. H. comments on your editorial on the Harvard English plan, printed in your issue of April 22 (p. 431). As a teacher of English in a technical institution, I find the views of J. M. H. interesting, but not altogether convincing.

The solution of the English problem is one in which all teachers of English are, of course, deeply concerned; and it is an auspicious sign of the times that faculties of other departments are becoming interested, and are joining with us in the task of teaching students to write clearly and idiomatically. It is this fact, no doubt, that has helped bring about the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

adoption of the new plan at Harvard, and the same plan, or a modification of it, at other institutions.

I am not so sanguine as to believe that the system will make a finished writer of every student; but I do think that a plan of this kind will go far towards bettering a condition among our students that is little short of disgraceful—a condition that was characteristically shown by a freshman at the close of his last English class of the year: "Now," he said, as he flung his notebook into the hedge, "I've got a pass in that stuff; I can write for the rest of my life as I please!"

And so he could. Probably he did go—like thousands of other students—from that day on through his college course, disregarding every principle of good writing, turning in papers and reports that were "technical mush." But suppose that, on the day that he finished his freshman theme course, he had known that at any time in the next three years any instructor in any subject might call him to account for his poor work in English and refer him to the English department for review and drill in his weak points, would he have cast his books away with his flippant remark? When a student knows that at any time he may be sent back to repeat his freshman English, or any part of it, he will exert himself to get the principles of writing and constantly to apply them.

I quite agree with J. M. H. when he says that "good writing is the business of every teacher"; but I do not think that it should be left to each department to "sweep its own doorstep." Teaching his own subject is a serious business for an instructor, and his time is quite taken up with it. Often, too, he is not qualified to show students how to correct their poor English. It is no reflection upon the teacher of technical subjects, or even upon the teacher of such a subject as history, to say that, although he is able to see the faults in the English of a student, he is not always able to show him how to correct them. As the teachers of English are, let us hope, specialists in their subject, it is only logical and right that other departments send their students to the English department for their English training.

Finally, as to the injustice to the English faculty. We all know that the English teacher has enough to do, is indeed overworked; but that fact scarcely justifies us in throwing off some of our work upon other departments. If the new system increases our burden, all we can do is to accept it, feeling that compensation for our additional labor lies in more efficient instruction. HARRY F. FORE.

Lafayette, Ind., July 8.

A FLESHLY POET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I request, through your columns, some information as to the authorship, circumstances, etc., of a curious book that I bought some twenty years ago in a second-hand book-shop? I paid little attention to it at the time, but have been recently reading it with interest and amusement. Inquiry of the English department at Harvard failed to elicit any information. The title is "The Obliviad—A Satire—With Notes—together with—Additional Notes, Preface—and—Supplement—by—The American Editor—and—The Perpetual Commentary—of the Athenæum," followed by a Greek quotation: "Λήθη κατενεμήθησαν—Diom. Schol. apud. Bent, and Iliad XVI, v. 406," and one in Latin, "Plin. Hist., Lib. XIV Proem. New York: James Miller, 779 Broadway; London: B. Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly; MDCCCLXXIX." On reverse: "Entered according to Act of Congress in the year 1879, by Dr. William Leech, in the Office of the Librarian of Congress at Washington, D. C."

A brief dedication to Dion Boucicault is followed by a list of names of persons celebrated in the poem. Among these names (occupying five pages) I may note Barnum, Accius Labeo, Guido Colonna, Mark Twain, Lais the Courtezan, Swinburne, et al. Then follows a list of works quoted (in seventeen pages). May be mentioned: Aluredi Beverlacensis Annal. sive Historiae de Gestis Regum Britanniae. Plays of Mrs. Aphra Behn. Blue Laws of Connecticut. Bosio, Roma Sotterranea—Roma, 1632. Chanoine Bossu, Traité du Poëme Epique—Paris, 1718. Trial of Rev. Ward Beecher, D. Crantz. History of Greenland, two volumes, London, 1767, etc., etc. Then follows a Catalogus Vitandorum, which is so rich that I must quote it in full:

Dixon, W. Hepworth. Spiritual Wives.
Dove of St. Mark, by Joaquin Miller.
Fanny Hill or Memoirs of a Woman of Pleasure. John Cleveland. London, 1750.
Harlot, History of, with the names of the principal Pimps and Puffers in her pay. London, 1868.
Laus Veneris and Other Poems and Ballads. By Algernon Charles Swinburne. London, 1866.
Petronius. Lusus Diversorum Poetarum in Priapum. Leipsiae, 1711.

The poem itself and the commentary show a really enormous amount of perverse learning. CHARLES ST. CLAIR WADE.

Tufts College, Mass., June 30.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your very interesting article on the Hon. John W. Foster, in the *Nation* for June 17, in which you say he attended Wabash College, allow me to say that Indiana University gladly yields to Wabash College her vice-presidents, but must lay claim to John W. Foster, who graduated there in the class of 1855, and has proved yearly, by word and gift, his great loyalty as an alumnus. KATE MILNER ROBB.

Indianapolis, Ind., June 24.

GEORGE MUNRO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I do not write to congratulate you on the fulness and beauty of your semi-centennial number, nor to tell you that ever since my college days in the sixties the *Nation* has been to me and many fellow-students our guide, philosopher, and friend, for whose opinion we always looked before making up our minds. My purpose is the humbler one of making a slight correction in one of your many historical articles. The Munro publishing house was established by George (not John) Munro. I cannot refute the statement that he vigorously opposed the attempt to secure international copyright. It would be natural that he should do so. But it should be put to his credit that he used a large slice of his earnings in the endowment of quite a number of professorships in Dalhousie College, one of which was the George Munro professorship of international law. This chair was held until last year by Dr. R. C. Weldon, a Ph.D. of Yale and alumnus of Heidelberg, who sat in the Dominion House of Commons from 1887 to 1896 and was the father of the so-called Weldon act to provide for the deportation and thus facilitate the proper punishment of the wealthy rascals who took refuge in Canada, their delinquencies not being within the extradition treaties.

B. RUSSELL.

Halifax, N. S., July 22.

THE "NATION."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wish to contribute my little note of congratulation among many others that you will undoubtedly receive at the completion of the fiftieth year of the *Nation*. In the spring of 1865 I returned from a service of over three years in the Union army. My school education ceased when I was thirteen years old, but I was blessed with a taste for reading, and somehow I took to good periodical literature. So I began reading the *Nation* with the first number, and have been a constant reader of it during all these fifty years, and for nearly all that time a regular subscriber. As a young man who needed instruction and direction, it was of invaluable assistance to me, and through all the intervening time I have received from it great help, and it has given me much-needed light on matters political, economical, and literary.

Now, at seventy-five, I value it as a tried and faithful friend, and look for its weekly visits with pleasurable anticipation. I expect to continue to receive good from it as long as my mind retains its power of action, and hope that its influence will continue for the benefit of future generations.

EDWARD G. SHERLEY.

Albany, N. Y., July 2.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It gives me pleasure to express my high appreciation of the jubilee number of the *Nation*. The admirable articles by Lord Bryce and others have made me realize more clearly than ever the high aims of the weekly and the good it has done in forming a body of intelligent public opinion. Please be assured of my best wishes for and belief in your future. WINSTON CHURCHILL.

Windsor, Vt., July 13.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For a reader of the *Nation* during forty-eight years, who rejoices at its long life, it is praise enough to say that the semi-centennial number is worthy of its subject. The look behind the scenes, the intimate knowledge of the relations between Godkin and Garrison, are of vital interest to those of us who never failed to wonder each week how such work could be done. How glad we are to have sat at their feet in company with so many men whose influence has been for righteousness! Godkin was a leader of public opinion—of the opinion of the best, and it is a tragedy that, on account of the pessimism of his later years, he could not appreciate the wholesome influence that he had exercised. How he would have rejoiced at this semi-centennial number! Quoting Emerson, with a change in the application, it may be said, "And I think this is a good country that can bear such" an editor as he was.

JAMES FORD RHODES.

Seal Harbor, Me., July 11.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Literature

THREE BOOKS ON BELGIUM.

The Spell of Flanders. By Edward Neville Vose. Boston: The Page Co. $2.50 net.

Famous Days and Deeds in Holland and Belgium. By Charles Morris. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25 net.

Belgium. By R. C. K. Ensor. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 50 cents net.

Of these three books on Belgium, the first two are illustrated. Mr. Vose, a recent tourist, whose vacation tour began in May and ended in July, 1914, had been prepared by a rich culture and thorough knowledge of the country's history. Hence, keen perception of what is beautiful in the past and charming in the present is here found. Of books that describe fully the northern part of a country that has so often been devastated by armies, not only of the chronic enemies, Gallic and Teutonic, but also from the north and south, this is the latest and probably the best.

With insight and critical appreciation of Flemish art and social evolution, Mr. Vose has made his pages delightful reading and the copious illustration forms an interpretative commentary upon his text, because his pictures are so admirably selected. He takes us into old towns and villages where history is indeed a resurrection. In the midst of a potato patch may rise a mighty tower, which, to the scholar, tells of vanished orders of knights or guilds of burghers that once were among the complex social forces which shaped the early communes. It is in these local units that the patriotism of the modern Belgian is rooted. To-day one may find the memorial of a vanished town only in architecture which recalls the past. The critical student or local antiquary sees and enjoys, while the hasty tourist passes blindly by.

Among the amazing number of battles, one here vividly described is that of Courtrai, when golden spurs were the trophies and the flower of French knighthood became fertilizer for the swampy soil. Equally accurate and stirring is the story of the struggle at Nieuwpoort, where, in 1600, Maurice, son of the William posthumously called "The Silent," won a decisive battle against Albert the Archduke, and also where in the year of Belgium's greatest desolation, 1914, the army of Albert the King made its last stand, holding the ground until reinforced by the Allies. Especially appreciative, also, is the author of that unique institution of northern Belgium, the carillon. He gives not only an account of the music and the listening crowds, but also of the mechanism by which the charming effects are produced. Other countries have chimes, peals, and varieties of dulcet sound, furnished by massing of the bells, but the Low Countries excel in this music of the sky, which furnishes a perpetual orchestra for the people. Scarcely anything of value relating to Flanders, from the point of view of reader or tourist, is omitted from this work, in which literary craftsmanship and dainty bookmaking unite. A full index and a good map, with the reproduction of photographs and four pages in color, make this a book the charm and accuracy of which are alike praiseworthy.

Mr. Charles Morris, a veteran compiler, has furnished in one volume a popular rather than critical résumé of the history of the Low Countries. It is chiefly a digest of Motley's chapters, with, however, a continuation of the history to the present time. The illustrations are well selected and in harmony with the text. The description of the Netherlands in the twentieth century is apparently at second hand, and not drawn from actual observation. The windmills, for example, in Holland, instead of increasing, are steadily diminishing in number; for steam, which can be depended upon to obey the will of man, being in the long run a much more serviceable power than wind, has reduced what was once a prime motor to the grade of an auxiliary. Even less assuring than the text is the preface, which gives one an impression that the author has not followed the first authorities, for he keeps up the traditional but inaccurate idea that the name Holland is derived from words which mean Hollow Land rather than Holt (wood, or forest) Land. "Van" Tromp, here inaccurately referred to, for Admiral Martin Harpentzoon Tromp, exists with this prefix only in English books and writings. The preface also holds the traditional but unhistorical broom at his masthead. Strange to say, nothing is said in the book about the Walloons, who still inhabit one-half of the land of Belgium and are nearly as numerous as the Flemings. In the seventeenth century, out of the hundreds of thousands of these French-speaking southern Netherlanders, driven out by the Inquisition and Alva's army, at least half became exiles for conscience' sake in the Dutch Republic. One company, in the ship New Netherland, in 1624, made the initial settlements, with women and children, of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware. The first white children born in New Belgium (Novo Belgico)—the political name of the geographical expression and the region of New Netherland—were Walloons. In this volume of Belgic and Dutch history (p. 348), nothing is said of these people, whose societies and churches, even in the Holland of to-day, are numbered by the score. Yet the Walloons initiated every revolution in the history of Belgic Netherlands, from Cæsar to the great industrial strike of 1914, which foreshadowed the heroic resistance in August of the same year. The compiler further cheapens his work by omitting an index.

No. 95 in the Home University Library is written by an Englishman who was sometime scholar of Balliol College, Oxford. It shows on every page the mark of one who knows the country from personal observation, as well as from books. His chapter on the general characteristics of the country gives a fresh epitome of the geology, geography, political and racial divisions, and commercial possibilities of the land. He shows how handsomely human skill and wisdom have contributed to make a certain area on the earth's surface, small and richly gifted by nature, a place of happiness and comfort for an unusually large population. He discriminates between the Walloons and the Flemings, contrasting in a scholarly and graphic manner their diverse temperaments, characteristics, and achievements. Taking us into their homes, he shows us the secret of the Belgians' tenacity to their native soil, from which few in modern days have emigrated, explaining why it is that a di-ethnic and bilingual people are so patriotic. In the chapter on The Historic Glories of Belgium the roots of national pride are revealed. Though in historic subjection to many masters, Belgian patriotism is rooted in those municipal rights and local privileges which, after long contests, were confirmed by charter many centuries ago. The dynastic struggles of foreigners on Belgian soil and repeated invasions have failed to eradicate this passion of freedom. As early as 1642, the unfortunate geographical situation of the Belgic Netherlands was noted. The phrase "the very cockpit of Christendom" was coined, probably by James Howell, a clerk in the diplomatic service of England, in his quaint book entitled "Instructions for Forreine Travell." He declared that in Brussels we could "behold a constant military court and provincial government, with a miscellany of all nations; and if there be any leaguers (*i. e.*, sieges) afoot or armies in motion, it should be time well spent to see them." In other words, the seventeenth-century tourist is recommended to "the cockpit of Christendom," because there he may have the chance of seeing, almost as in a regular programme, what the war correspondent of to-day does literally so dearly love to behold.

In describing the Battle of Waterloo, Mr. Ensor effectually disposes of the legend, so long current in England, and elaborated by Thackeray in "Vanity Fair," that at both Quatre Bras and Waterloo the Dutch and Belgian regiments fled in cowardly retreat. On the contrary, they acted as did the Union army at Gettysburg, when the infantry retired before Pickett's charge and re-formed behind the guns. Mr. Ensor's chapter on the establishment of Belgian independence is probably the best account in English literature of the revolution which made of the long oppressed provinces a sovereign nation. His treatment of The Belgian Constitution and Politics and Parties is clear and luminous, while in the chapters on Social Conditions and Art and Literature we enter the penetralia of the subject. One is almost forced, in reading this book on Belgium by a true scholar of our year, to contrast his work and Motley's. Despite the fascination of the American's brilliant rhetoric, this little book of Mr. Ensor's suffers little in comparison. The author in his comments on contemporaneous literature shows both acuteness and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

sympathy. Of Verhaeren, he says that this poet is still a Fleming, though he uses a French medium, and that in his verse the personalities "cease to be individuals" and become "those tendencies and processes of society in whose tentacles the individual is held," and that "no poet of our age has kept closer together the spheres of actuality and vision." Outline maps, bibliography, and index make this book, not for the sightseer or tourist, but for the serious student, the best volume on Belgium extant in English.

Perhaps two criticisms may be justly entered. The general appeal of Mr. Ensor's book is to an English audience, though the frequent unfairness of British writers towards Belgium is justly criticised. An American, even in a condensed work like this, would have welcomed a more generous treatment of the period of "The Troubles," when, despite the earlier work of the Dukes of Burgundy, the statesmanship of Charles V, and the wisdom of William of Orange-Nassau, the unity of the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands was forever broken and union of the Dutch and Belgians made impossible. Yet even Motley scarcely mentions the personality or work of the Walloon martyr Guido de Bres, whose Belgic Confession of Faith is one of the outstanding monuments of the Reformation and whose work had so vast an influence on the flight of the Walloons into Holland, and on the development of the seven northern provinces which first made the Dutch Republic, and then began the settlement of New Netherland; in a word, on universal history.

CURRENT FICTION.

L. P. M., the End of the Great War. By Stewart Barney. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Fortunately, the conscientious reader of Mr. Barney's novel of the war can take refuge in the conviction that it is not worth the expenditure of great intellectual effort, and so absolve himself from the task of placing it in any definite category. Indeed, it is only towards the end that one begins to entertain doubts as to the author's intent. Through many dreary pages one assumes it to be an honest but misguided effort to emulate, if not Jules Verne, at any rate the earlier manner of Mr. H. G. Wells; it is only at about the penultimate chapter that a dawning consciousness comes that the author may be indulging in satire on a variety of fads and movements of the day. In any event we must give Mr. Barney credit for the excellence of his intentions. Obviously he doesn't care who wins so long as Germany is beaten. Good intent, however, does not atone for poorness of execution. Mr. Barney uses an idea which is perhaps none the worse for being old, since in detail it is susceptible of almost any number of variations. He pictures the end of the war being brought about by means of a superdreadnought of the air, the invention of a young American millionaire, Edestone (incidentally we may note that the practice of using slight variants of real names is irritating), who constitutes himself a sort of free lance pacificator and finally imposes terms of universal peace upon the world. This laudable object, however, is achieved only after the author, through Edestone, has hectored and lectured the crowned heads of Europe and their advisers to the top of his bent. In his didactic pages Mr. Barney gives evidence of some shakiness concerning the English Constitution—he is apparently under the impression that King George is rather a powerful person in the government of his country—and it may be doubted whether even the Kaiser is quite the half-crazed bully that Mr. Barney would have us believe.

The Auction Mart. By Sydney Tremayne. New York: John Lane Co.

Jacqueline is the illegitimate daughter of a dilettante reprobate who decides to bring her up as an experiment in cynicism. To develop her own personality untrammelled by consideration of others and to exact from the world a high price for all that she gives to it: this is the creed he teaches her, and hence the title of the book. Concerning the author's optimistic view of human nature, we may be permitted to make mental reservations, for the motive of his story is the triumph of the innate goodness of his heroine over the unpromising influences of her environment. The point of view being granted, however, Jacqueline's is an interesting character, and its development is well traced through a series of incidents that are conceived with not a little fertility of imagination. Just the same, we cannot quite share the author's confidence in Jacqueline's future with the very perfect English gentleman whom he has picked out as her mate. He has perhaps impressed us too much with the brilliance and fascination of his heroine, and the unregenerate, it may be feared, will cherish rather the picture of Jacqueline dancing with her interesting, but alas! drug-addicted partner in a Parisian café than that later one of Jacqueline as the chatelaine of a modest but impeccable British establishment.

The Crayon Clue. By Minnie J. Reynolds. New York: Mitchell Kennerley.

The author of this story was born in New York State; became a schoolma'am in a Colorado mining camp; by way of mining gossip worked into journalism, and served on the staff of a Denver daily; became one of the pioneer suffragists in Colorado, and has since been chiefly busy with the advancement of that cause—or effect. This is a spirited and a decidedly breezy and Western tale of a young schoolma'am who deliberately pitted herself against a corrupt municipal school system and came out winner. The schools of the big city of Bartown are under the control of the "Columbian Book Company," which works with the city politicians, and maintains its power by means of graft of all kinds. It has virtually appointed the superintendent of schools and owns the School Board. The superintendent, Dreiser, is an utterly shameless, though plausible and well-mannered, grafter. Not content with a large salary, he exacts commissions from teachers to whom he gives appointments, and accepts them from the purveyor of schoolbooks and supplies. Only the books of the Columbian Book Company are used in the city schools. Many of them are worthless books, but the teachers are forced to use them. The final stroke is the foisting upon them of a worthless kind of chalk. It is this which really rouses our heroine, "Billy" Pennington, and sets her on the warpath. Documents incriminating the superintendent fall into her hands, but at first she is unable to make use of them. The newspapers, as well as the schools, are involved in the general corruption of the city. "Billy" is destined to triumph in the end; meanwhile, there is a sufficiency of stirring incident, including an abduction.

THE TURK IN YEMEN.

Arabia Infelix. By G. Wyman Bury. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2.50 net.

With western eyes fixed upon the outcome of the Turk's desperate struggle to remain in Europe, this intensive study of a province in his Arabian dependency is of particular significance. Strictly speaking, the Turk's hold on Arabia has never been complete; the vast, unclaimed interior, the north of which is not unproductive, has never acknowledged his suzerainty. Except for an important sector on the Persian Gulf, where England has contested his claims to the port of Koweit, Turkish influence is confined to the Red Sea littoral of Arabia, and includes the large and fruitful province of Yemen, where the only semblance of imperial prestige is maintained. Officially the only province open to Europeans, in contrast to the barren interior, Yemen has won from ancient times the suffix of "Felix" for Arabia, chiefly because of her high, cool plateaux adjacent to the sea. Mr. Bury's challenge of this title is based upon an intimate study of Turkish rule, and the enormous disabilities it has placed upon the happiest province of Arabia.

Turkey's negligible spheres of influence are limited to Hejaz, Asir, and North Yemen, while Yemen proper, until the recent truce with the Imam, has always been the scene of intermittent violence and unrest. This nominal power has obliged the Turk to collect his taxes with the aid of troops, and the unintelligent manner in which the taxes are imposed has embittered the indigenous tribes. His despotic régime is also capable of blunders like the bribing of the Bedouins and of temporizing with fanatical leaders like the Imam in Yemen, a task he is already finding onerous and expensive. In the near future Mr. Bury thinks he will face the need of reconquest in Yemen as well as of contesting the growing strength of the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Emir of independent Nejd in the northern desert.

Mr. Bury toured Yemen in the rôle of an ornithologist, and has an invaluable chapter on its flora and fauna, but his experience of Turko-Asian politics and his keen eye for the ethnic differences among the tribes commend his book to our attention. The impression derived of the stupendous task that Turkey has so indifferently faced is definite: naturally Turkish ineptitude and the policy of exploitation have kept Arabia in the guise of a huge, plundered apiary, with her truculent tribes consistently living up to the reputation of her famous bees of Yemen and Hadramut. The forty-odd years of Turkish administration record the failure of the one race qualified to govern these restless, fanatical tribes. As Mr. Bury remarks, the Turk is the natural ruler of Islamic races by birthright, creed, and temperament. The futile war on the Egyptian hinterland in the present crisis marks the collapse of Pan-Islamism as an effective vehicle merely because Turkey lacked the vision that could avail itself of the Moslem genius for obedience and organization.

Thus in Yemen we are shown her pusillanimous rule. In order to stay the fanatical activities of the Imam, who is regarded as an inspired leader by the fierce, marauding hill tribes, the Porte conceded his authority at the important town of Sanaa, and now pays a personal monthly subsidy of 1,000 Turkish pounds. Since Imamship, like all Oriental leadership, is founded on personality, Mr. Bury prophesies trouble when a new or rival Imam appears, and Turkey's espousal of the losing cause will inflame the entire *vilayet*. A short-sighted policy towards this welter of sharply defined races and creeds is not the only reason for Turkish failure: among these primitive Moslems the demoralization of Turkey, owing to the adoption of Western unbelievers' methods and ideals, is far more harmful to her prestige. Since Turkey has fostered in Asia Minor a strong anti-Christian policy, if her knell sounds in Europe, she may find herself at odds with her fervid co-religionists in Asia Minor and Arabia because of her anomalous position.

In the light of the British reclamation of Egypt, Mr. Bury regards Yemen as a greater potentiality. The persistent exploitation and neglect of Yemen's agricultural and industrial resources, hitherto paramount, certainly makes Arabia's new suffix deserved. Whether or no any change at Constantinople compels the Turk to put his house in order, he will find his work cut out for him. In the north, the young and capable Emir of Nejd is attracting the desert tribes by the prestige he won two years ago in driving the Turk from the adjoining province of al-Hassa. In the south the unconquered Bedouin, though bribed by the Porte, has the important pilgrim route at his mercy; and to keep his Caliphate the Sultan must remain guardian of the pilgrims and the Holy City. In rich Yemen the irreconcilable Asiri of the hills are waiting their chance. With the steady and increasing influx of modern arms and ammunition to these fighting tribes, the future of Arabia is an unknown quantity. Mr. Bury credits the Emir of Nejd with a vision of an Arabia governed along the pre-Ottoman, patriarchial, tribal lines; but the collapse of central authority will reëstablish the historic internecine warfare that has long exhausted the land. What influence a religious revival of Islamism may have in bringing order out of anarchy is uncertain: schisms are frequent, and the possible repetition of a galvanizing movement, like that of the Wahabi sect, is always before Islam.

It is interesting to learn from Mr. Bury's pages that Yemen was once in fief to the Biblical Queen of Sheba (Saba); that the Prophet, until just before his death, suffered Christianity and Judaism to flourish side by side; that the Arab coffee grower still uses the stars for guiding the season's toil; that Mokha is no longer a coffee port, but is now famous for the only adequate lighthouse on the Red Sea littoral. The Brazilian competition, Turkish taxation, and the rise of British Aden doomed Mokha.

REMINISCENCES OF LIBBY AND OTHER PRISONS.

Lights and Shadows in Confederate Prisons. By Homer B. Sprague. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

"In peace," declares King Henry V, "there's nothing so becomes a man as modest stillness and humility; but when the blast of war blows in our ears, then imitate the action of the tiger." No such philosophy colors the work before us. With his ears ringing with the German affirmation that war is useful and highly honorable, and that any means, however frightful, if necessary to insure success or hasten victory, are praiseworthy, Colonel Sprague recalls Wesley's assertion that "The business of war is the business of devils," but hastens to add that at heart few are enemies, none devils.

Every incident in his absorbing narrative heightens this impression, as, for example, that of his capture at the battle sometimes called the "Battle of the Opequon" in the Shenandoah Valley. Though told with an oath that the force of which he was a part had killed their "best general," he was complimented by the Confederate officers and treated with all the consideration of which the situation would admit. The hardships of the march to prison were great, but they appear to have been due rather to unavoidable circumstances than to any intention or desire on the part of the captors. To be sure, robbery was not infrequent, but in this connection it is necessary to recall how sadly in want the Confederates themselves were. As we look back on that march we see much that makes us smile, but nothing that bespeaks the devil. Our author, for example, got into a lively discussion of slavery with an officer of the provost guard. Arguments from the Bible, Moses Stuart, Nehemiah Adams, George B. Cheever, Horace Bushnell, Henry Ward Beecher, Garrison, Phillips, and others flew thick and fast. The debates apparently had an amusing termination:

I had some reputation as an elocutionist in those days, and Sergeant Reed, who was listening with open mouth, broke in with, "I'll be hanged, Colonel, if you warn't cut out for a preacher! By —— I should like to hear you preach." The best reply I could make was: "You'll undoubtedly be hanged some time; and if I were a minister, nothing would give me more satisfaction than to be present at your execution and preach your funeral sermon." He replied: "Now, Colonel, you don't mean that. You don't think I'll ever be hanged!" "Indeed I do, if you don't stop your profanity and general cussedness." "I'll be hanged if I will," was his last word to me.

More dead than alive, the prisoners finally reached Richmond and were shut up in the Libby prison. There they were searched. Our author had shrewdly compressed two ten-dollar greenbacks into a little wad in one corner of his watch fob, and that corner escaped inspection. Another prisoner, it was whispered, had secretly stuffed $1,300 in greenbacks into his canteen, but all canteens were appropriated as contraband of war, and nobody but Uncle Sam profited by the concealment.

Though Libby has a hard name, Colonel Sprague says it was the most comfortable of the six Confederate prisons of which he saw the interior. With all his alleged brutal severity, "of which I saw no manifestation," and his ravenous appetite for greenbacks, "for which we could not blame him," Dick Turner seemed an excellent disciplinarian. Everything went like clockwork. The daily food supply consisted of one gill of boiled beans, one-quarter gill of bean broth, one half loaf of soft bread, four ounces of meat, and a little salt. Of pure water there was happily a copious supply. After a few days our author and his companions in misery were transferred to Salisbury, North Carolina. Here were incarcerated about 320 officers and some 8,000 non-commissioned officers and privates.

Eighty officers obtained permission to occupy four empty log cabins which formed part of the prison equipment. Each house contained but two rooms. For the most part these were without glass windows or even sashes; the spaces between the logs were not stopped up; there was a single fireplace in each house, but not half enough wood to keep a blaze; there were no tables, benches, or chairs; no cooking utensils; no knives, forks, spoons, or plates; often no cups or dishes. They were without blankets, or any clothing but the scantiest summer outfit, though it was October when they arrived; without books or paper; without water sufficient for washing, or soap if water could be obtained. Across a "dead line" were the privates, who had no shelter, hardly a scrap of blanket. Every rain made their

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

beds a pool or mass of mire. The officers could tell how severe the weather had been at night by the number of dead found in the morning.

In less than a month there was another removal, this time to Danville, Va. It would be hard to imagine a condition more nearly approaching absolute destitution than that in which the prisoners now found themselves. Colonel Sprague's diary shows, for example, that in fifty-three days after Christmas, 1864, they received meat only three times. The suffering from cold was excruciating. The suffering of another character can best be divined from a remark of one of Colonel Sprague's companions: "Hard, indeed," he said, "must have been Pharaoh's heart, and tougher yet his epidermis, if the lice of the third Egyptian plague were like those of Danville, and yet he would not 'let Israel go.'" It was reported, "and believed," that in the following April a returned Danville prisoner entered an apothecary shop in Annapolis and called for unguentum. "How much do you want?" he was asked. "Well, I reckon about two pound." "My dear sir, two pounds would kill all the lice in Maryland." "Well, I vow I believe I've got 'em."

Yet we are told that Lieut.-Col. Robert C. Smith, who commanded the Danville prison, appeared to be kindhearted, though wofully destitute of "faculty." He had been a student at Yale in the forties. He had once been a prisoner in the hands of the Federals, and had been fairly treated. He repeatedly expressed his regret at not being able to make the prisoners committed to his charge more comfortable. As a matter of fact, the spectacle of the hopeless mass of misery in the four Danville prisons seemed to render him powerless, if not indifferent.

This is such a capital story that the reviewer is in danger of forestalling the pleasure of Colonel Sprague's readers. Attention should be called, however, to the fact that, though frankly a narrative, this brief work—it hardly exceeds one hundred and fifty pages—is not without touches of philosophy. It begins, indeed, with a mild criticism of Sheridan's Shenandoah campaign, and ends with strictures on the Federal Government's policy with reference to the exchange of prisoners. It is recalled that 22,576 Federal prisoners died in Confederate hands, but that 26,436 Confederates died in Federal hands. The significance of this is enhanced by the fact that the North held 220,000 Confederates, against 270,000 Federals held by the South; so that the percentage of deaths in Southern prisons was under nine, while the percentage of deaths in Northern prisons was over twelve. A prompt exchange of prisoners would, declares Colonel Sprague, have saved almost all these 49,000 lives. The responsibility for this enormous loss he lays upon the Government of the United States, which, rather than draft again—with the riots of July, 1863, in mind—as it would have had to do if it had allowed the South to reinforce its armies with returned prisoners, left "myriads of our soldiers to sink into imbecility and death."

Though he pictures conditions in Southern prisons in such ghastly colors, our author recognizes that much can be said for the South. Its destitution was extreme; its soldiers needed the food, clothing, and medical care for want of which its prisoners were suffering; its people were threatened with subjugation, its government with annihilation.

A STUDY IN HAGIOLOGY.

Dedications and Patron Saints of English Churches. By Francis Bond. New York: Oxford University Press. $3 net.

The present volume is a cogent refutation of those who look upon hagiology as a form of sentimental indulgence for idle ritualists. In the first place, it demonstrates, all the more conclusively because unconsciously, the importance of the subject to the student of mediæval art, life, and history. We discover, for instance (p. 214), that the dedication of churches to Celtic saints decides a moot point about the boundary between Britons and Saxons in the southwest. The fondness of the mediæval mind for romantic narrative is strikingly corroborated by the disproportionate popularity of those saints whose legends are composed of sensational adventures. The significance of hagiology for a proper understanding of religious art requires no demonstration: the composition and, in the case of painting, even the color-scheme depend not only upon the master's invention, but also upon well-defined conventions of iconography.

In the second place, the author has shown that the subject is capable of a thorough and scientific treatment. The extensive bibliography that he has prefixed to the work is in itself an index to the growing scholarly interest in hagiology. His copious material he has acquired by the most painstaking research, and he has arranged it with systematic clarity. After an introductory chapter on the meaning of dedications, he classifies them all under three general headings by distinguishing the churches named after the martyrs over whose bones they were built, those named after the founders, and those named according to personal predilection. He then proceeds to gauge the popularity of the different saints in England by appending to each name in a long list the respective number of dedications. The heavenly throng are next divided into such categories as Biblical personages, holy kings and queens, and evangelizers, and the following chapters take up these categories in detail, revealing the obscure and often curious reasons for commemoration and relating the legends in such brief and convenient form that the volume will prove an excellent book of reference. Part I concludes with chapters on topics suggested by the previous discussion. Mr. Bond draws up statistics as to the comparative vogue of the saints in the several English counties and seeks to explain the variations; he sets side by side the calendars of Bede and Sarum with additions from those of York and Hereford; he examines certain anomalies in dedication, and he even prescribes methods of procedure for the investigator. But the most valuable chapter of this section, based largely on Delehaye's "Introduction to Hagiography," has to do with the historical criteria applicable for determining the credibility of the legends.

Much of the material in Part I bears upon the other countries of Europe as well as upon England, and Parts II and III constitute a manual upon ecclesiastical symbolism, vestments, and iconographic emblems. The double alphabetical tabulation according to attributes and according to names of saints increases the practical usefulness of the book. Certain sins of omission are bound to appear in a compendium of this kind. The reviewer has noticed that for St. Sylvester the emblem of the portraits of Sts. Peter and Paul is not mentioned. The easiest way of recognizing St. Augustine of Hippo—by the black monastic cowl over the cope—is passed over, and in general a short account of the garbs of the various Orders would have assisted the ordinary student for whom the book is designed.

For such absences, however, which are perhaps caused by the fact that the author is thinking always rather of England, there is ample compensation in the presence of unexpected and delightful digressions upon topics like the christening of bells or the symbolic significance of the deviation in the axis of churches. The pages are enlivened, also, by many well-chosen illustrations, often from less familiar monuments. The work as a whole is a creditable addition to the series upon ecclesiastical art in England of which Mr. Bond is editor and to which he himself has contributed several volumes.

AN INTRODUCTION TO SHAKESPEARE.

The Study of Shakespeare. By Henry Thew Stephenson. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.25 net.

For the fifteen years that Professor Stephenson has been teaching Shakespeare, he has brought out a book in the field every five years. "Shakespeare's London" was well received and has continued to be useful to many students. "The Elizabethan People" was interesting, but was disfigured in places by careless statements. The present volume on the study of the playwright himself comes in natural sequence, and is the work for which the others are the logical preparation. It leads up to the critical consideration of eleven plays by attempting to initiate the reader into the social and dramatic conditions of the time, so that he may assume the Elizabethan point of view, and to familiarize him with the stage arrangements under which the plays were originally produced. The manual, though similar to others in the market, is some-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

what more comprehensive because of the detailed comment on the eleven plays.

Every one will recognize this undertaking as very important, not only because of the subject itself, but because of the advances of scholarship in this field in recent years. The volume does give a clear and forceful account of London and its playhouses in the sixteenth century, of the publishing and structure of Shakespeare's dramas, as well as vigorous criticism of the characters and the staging of the most popular plays. The exposition is admirably lucid. The only doubt one harbors is whether the notions instilled conform to present scholarly opinion. It is naturally somewhat disappointing to find easily accessible investigations overlooked or ignored.

The Swan Theatre is worthy of careful notice. It has the unique distinction of appearing in the earliest contemporary drawing of the interior of an Elizabethan playhouse. Professor Stephenson, indeed, reproduces the sketch of that Dutchman, John DeWitt, who probably visited London in 1596. Of the house he says: "Though one of the largest theatres, it was not long, and never exclusively used for plays" (p. 28). Now, the researches of Prof. C. W. Wallace have shown that it was unquestionably used for plays for a few years at the time of DeWitt's visit, for the period 1611-1615, and again in 1621. His further statement that "it possessed a movable stage which could be taken down when the interior was to be used for bear-baiting" is also now somewhat discredited. And this for a very simple reason. Any one who accepts the drawing at all and looks at it steadily can hardly be brought to believe that those sturdy pillars and heavy bases do not rest on a solid platform. With regard to those columns, the author says of the Elizabethan theatres in general: "There must have been secondary curtains, . . . probably merely draperies temporarily placed for the occasion of need. Possibly there were side curtains used" (p. 38). Now, Reynolds, Archer, and Child have all shown that the notion of curtains between the pillars is untenable. Since there is no evidence for the use of such curtains before 1640, there is no ground for adhering to the conjecture maintained by Brodmeier. With the greatest assurance, Professor Stephenson declares that "the play before the king and the court in 'Hamlet' was acted on the upper stage" (p. 31), where Juliet stood in the famous balcony scene. Professor Baker, to be sure, in his production of "Hamlet" at Harvard used such an arrangement, but students of Elizabethan staging to-day would not generally fall in with this view, preferring to have the play within the play acted on the inner stage, where it would not divert attention from the conduct of King Claudius. Other examples are unnecessary to illustrate how consistently Professor Stephenson states absolutely views which no longer justly represent scholarly opinion.

His statement of doctrine is similarly direct. The theory of dramatic structure which he expounds through a chapter harks back to Freytag, with his exciting force and pyramidal structure and all that. He nowhere takes occasion to emphasize sufficiently what goes to the heart of many features of Elizabethan tragedy—the necessarily declamatory nature of drama in such a theatre. In the interpretation of separate plays he is likewise individual in his dogmatism: "It is my belief that Macbeth, at the opening of the play, is an honest, high-minded man outwardly, who has as yet entertained no ideas of guilt" (p. 265). Of course, Professor Stephenson is not so much alone in that belief as one might infer, but others have not so impatiently brushed aside the evidence against this conception. The emphasis of the lecture-room appears at times also in a redundancy of expression, as in "Such a play need not necessarily be a tragedy, though hardly an out-and-out farce" (p. 64). We should hope not. These shortcomings are the more regrettable as the volume is, on the whole, an interesting and even illuminating introduction to Shakespeare.

Notes

"The Lost Prince," by Frances Hodgson Burnett, will be published shortly by the Century Co.

T. Fisher Unwin, of London, announces the publication of Gregor Alexinsky's "Russia and the Great War," and a book of "War Cartoons," by D. H. Souter.

Prof. Basil L. Gildersleeve's "The Creed of the Old South," with another essay on "A Southerner in the Peloponnesian War," has been republished by the Johns Hopkins Press.

Houghton Mifflin Co. announces that it will publish early in the autumn a biography by Beckles Willson of the late Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal. This, it is stated, is the only biography authorized by the Strathcona family.

We are requested to announce that the next meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States will be held at Nashville on Thursday and Friday, October 28 and 29.

In a notice of "The Gods of Northern Buddhism," by Alice Getty, which appeared in the *Nation* of June 17, the reviewer assumed that the author was the wife of Herbert H. Getty. The collector's name is Henry H. Getty, and the author is Miss Alice Getty, his daughter.

If American tourists in Europe are conceivable in the unhappy year 1915, let it be recorded that there is a new Baedeker for Southern Germany, comprising the kingdoms of Bavaria and Württemberg, brought up to 1914. (Scribner.)

The following volumes are included in the autumn list of the Yale University Press: "A Census of Shakespeare Quartos," prepared by Henrietta Bartlett and Alfred Pollard; "Journeys to Bagdad," by Charles S. Brooks; "The Port of Boston," by Edwin J. Clapp; "Miscellaneous Babylonian Inscriptions," by Albert T. Clay; "Some Christian Convictions," by Henry Sloane Coffin; "A Bibliography of Medieval French Literature for College Libraries," by Lucien Foulet, edited by Albert Schinz and George H. Underwood; "Writings on American History, 1913," compiled by Grace Gardner Griffin; "Civilization and Climate," by Ellsworth Huntington; "The Covent-Garden Journal by Henry Fielding," edited by Gerard E. Jensen; "The New Infinite and the Old Theology," by Cassius J. Keyser; "The Life and Times of Tennyson," by the late Thomas R. Lounsbury; "A Series of Eight Etchings of Yale University," by Huc-Mazelet Luquiens; "Municipal Citizenship," by George McAneny; "The Liberty of Citizenship," by Samuel W. McCall; "The Dated Alexander Coinage of Sidon and Ake," by Edward T. Newell; "A Voice from the Crowd," by George Wharton Pepper; "Sappho in Levkas and Other Poems," by William Alexander Percy; "Selections from the Symbolic Poems of William Blake," edited by Frederick E. Pierce; "Economic Development of the British West Indies, 1700-1760," by Frank W. Pitman; "Lombard Architecture," Vol. I (Atlas), by Arthur Kingsley Porter; "The Social Legislation of the Primitive Semites," by Henry Schaeffer; "Electoral Reform in England and Wales; the Development and Operation of the Parliamentary Franchise, 1832-1865," by Charles Seymour; "Leonardo da Vinci; The Artist and the Man," by Oswald Sirén; "Ethics in Service," by Howard Taft; "A Manual to the Writings in Middle English, 1050-1400," by John Edwin Wells.

In his three lectures on "German Philosophy and Politics" (Holt; $1.25), Prof. John Dewey puts aside the idea that the philosophy of Nietzsche is responsible for the German attitude in the war, and directs our attention, very naturally, to Kant, Fichte, and Hegel. According to him, the underlying motive of German militarism—and of militarism everywhere—is to be found in the system of absolute idealism, which has its source in Kant's idea of an absolute moral law. Following the course of German thought and German institutions, Professor Dewey traces in a very interesting fashion, with plenty of historical illustration, the development in Germany of the idea of manifest destiny and of the mission of Germany to establish the Kingdom of the Absolute on earth. The treatment is impersonal, but the collocation of facts forms a telling piece of sarcasm. And the conclusion is simple and clear: either militarism or pragmatism; there is no middle ground—we use the convenient "catch word"; Professor Dewey prefers "experimentalism." And where the philosophy of the absolute lands us, German egotism has shown.

Professor Dewey is clearly on solid ground. No one who studies the German conception of the organized state—whether militaristic or socialistic—can fail to see that it is built at least upon Hegel. Compared with Hegel, Nietzsche seems recent and accidental. And yet from a simple belief in absolute truth to militarism and an armed propaganda for German *Kultur* is rather a far cry. Probably every deep conviction of duty rests upon some conception of absolute truth. It seems harder to connect moral seriousness with an "experimental" attitude. At any rate, it is quite

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

as easy to derive moral skepticism from experimentalism as to derive fanaticism from a belief in absolute truth. A belief in absolute truth may be conjoined with a critical attitude and a sense of humor. It is one thing to believe in the absoluteness of truth, another to believe that one enjoys the exclusive possession of truth, and still another to believe that truth is found in the exuberance of animal impulse. To account for the present pitch of Teutonic extravagance, we need something more than Hegelian intellectualism; we need just that romantic confusion of might and right, of animal impulse with the moral self, which we find in Nietzsche. If Hegel sustains the sober German, Nietzsche is his favorite intoxicant.

"Meditations on Votes for Women" (Houghton Mifflin; $1) is the title of a refreshing little book by Samuel M. Crothers, in which he amuses himself by poking fun at feminists and anti-feminists alike, while offering some views that are both original and instructive. In Mr. Crothers's opinion, too much fuss has been made about the whole matter. When the feminists boast and the anti-feminists fear that the social organism will be turned inside-out by votes for women, he reminds them that women have existed since the beginning of the race and have had their part in human development. As for feminine competition in business, he thinks it more likely that women will eventually develop new fields of their own. That there is a magical property in the franchise he regards as a huge joke, kept alive by men for their own purposes. The vote is simply an instrument for registering the popular will. "It is an invention like the cash-register—only simpler." Evidently agitators bore him. But the agitator has his legitimate field, and it is too much to ask that he should not make himself disagreeable. And in the end it is gravely suggested that votes for women would permit the man of the house to control his own. "The husband of a woman with a conscience elicits my sympathy."

The war has drawn countries together as well as separated them, and one sign of this relationship is the comically sudden appreciation of one another's civilization which some of them are expressing. In England's hailing of Russian culture as the two nations draw the sword side by side, the cynical might find matter for comment. Their sneers, however, could not touch the unpretentious pamphlet of J. W. Mackail, "Russia's Gift to the World" (Doran; 25 cents), because, for one thing, it is a calm presentation of Russian achievements in literature and science, and, for another, it speaks of German attainments as dispassionately as if we were still on the other side of August, 1914. As if to prove his detachment, the author, who was formerly professor of poetry at Oxford, expressly recognizes Russian shortcomings. His brief and popular, but authoritative, survey will be of value to a large audience which will rejoice that, if it was prompted by martial events, it reveals one man at least who can praise an ally without either flattering him or slandering the common foe.

The 20,000 women employed in trade, transportation, and clerical occupations in 1870, and constituting 1 per cent. of the total number working for wages, increased by 1910 to more than a million, constituting over 14 per cent. of the whole number employed. Of this million, nearly 600,000 were in offices, and it is this large group that is the subject of "The Public Schools and Women in Office Service," which is volume viii of the Studies in Economic Relations of Women issued by the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston. The book is a study of one aspect of the question of vocational education. Among its specific conclusions are: "The direct relation between education and opportunity for advancement shows the obvious advantage of a four-year high-school course for all who can avail themselves of it"; "a fifth year intensive course of technical training might well be developed in all high schools where the attendance would justify"; "shortened undergraduate courses in the day high school for the skilled occupations in office service seem to be a very questionable experiment"; "part-time schooling for office service seems to promise real advantages."

When, just two hundred years ago, death came to Dr. John Radcliffe, the great physician whose name is connected with the Camera and Observatory of Oxford and with other benefactions, the gold-headed cane, which, as was the wont in those days, he had carried as a sign of his profession, passed into the possession of the Dr. Mead, of whom Johnson said that he lived more in the sunshine of life than any other man he knew. From Dr. Mead it passed to Dr. Askew, then to Dr. Pitcairn and Dr. Bailie, and last to Sir Henry Halford. By this time a cane ceased to be the regular equipment of a physician, and on June 24, 1825, the day before the opening of the New College of Physicians in London, the cane, now wearing the arms of its previous possessors engraved on its gold head, was deposited in a corner closet of the college Library. In 1827 Dr. William Macmichael, a friend of Halford's, had the happy idea of writing what purported to be the autobiography of "The Gold-Headed Cane," and now, in lieu of the centenary celebrations for Dr. Radcliffe at Oxford, which have been given up under the stress of circumstances, a reprint of the second edition of this work has been brought out by Paul B. Hoeber (3), with an Introduction by Sir William Osler and a Preface by Dr. Francis R. Packard. It is altogether a delightful book. In the course of its rather loquacious memoirs, the Cane contrives to draw life-like portraits of its great possessors and to give some account of the history of medical practice from the early seventeenth century to the early nineteenth. The interest of the sketches is primarily for physicians, but by no means exclusively so. There is nothing technical in the language, and always the human side of the profession is uppermost. The book belongs to one of the pleasant by-ways of literature, and does something to fill one of the great gaps in English biography—the gap which will be closed when some eminent physician, who is also a philosopher and man of letters, shall give us the true and unreserved story of his own life, with the reflections on human nature and on life in general as these would come to him in the course of his peculiar experiences.

Though virtually unknown to readers of the present day, Philip Skelton was one of the noteworthy men of the eighteenth century, and his "Life," by Samuel Burdy, among the most entertaining biographies in the English language, was worthy of the charming form it has received in the reprint from the Oxford University Press. Skelton was born near Lisburn, Ireland, in 1707, and died in Dublin at the age of eighty. He was a priest of the Anglican Church and held several cures, the last being at Fintona, in the county of Tyrone. In character he was so scrupulous that he would not even sell a horse without warning the buyer of the animal's defects, and was so charitable that twice, in times of dearth, he parted with his books in order to raise money for the starving population. He was an original, in the old sense of the word. Though a man of extraordinary strength, he suffered most of his life from what was then known as the "hips." This was the more remarkable because he had himself some skill in medical science, and "by this means," as his biographer states, "was of great use to his parishioners, for he cured many, and killed none, which but few of our doctors can boast of." He might be called one of the earliest practitioners of "muscular Christianity," and never hesitated to resort to physical means of persuasion when arguments failed. On an occasion when at an inn an insolent young officer refused to stop cursing when appealed to by the parson, and even turned his blasphemies against the parson himself, that gentleman "fell to him with his fists, and cuffed him through the hall of the inn, and soon cooled the captain's courage, and made him quiet and submissive." And thus, adds the biographer, he exerted "his valor in the service of God and religion." So many are the good stories in the moderate compass of this book that the reviewer is quite at a loss to select from them, and can only assure any lover of anecdotal literature that here is God's plenty for him, with matters for serious consideration besides. As a scholar, Skelton made some name in his day. One of his pamphlets was attributed to Swift, who, according to his strict determination never to acknowledge or disavow any anonymous performance, merely observed, when the piece was brought to him, that "the author of this has not continued the irony to the end." Perhaps the most important of Skelton's works (at least it is the only one the present reviewer has read) was his "Deism Revealed," one of the best of the treatises brought out by the great religious and philosophical controversy of the day. This is in dialogue form, and is not without permanent literary value. As the argument of the book is directed in part against Hume's skepticism, there is some piquancy in this account of its publication:

> Upon Mr. Skelton's arrival in London, he brought his manuscript to Andrew Millar the Bookseller, to know if he would purchase it, and have it printed at his own expense. The Bookseller desired him, as is usual, to leave it with him for a day or two, until he could get a certain gentleman of great abilities to examine it, who could judge if the sale would quit the cost of printing. The gentlemen who examine manuscripts, in the Bookseller's cant, are called *triers*. "Can you guess (he said to me) who this gentleman was, that tried my 'Deism Revealed.'" "No, I cannot." "Hume, the infidel." He came it seems to Andrew Millar's, took the manuscript to a room adjoining the shop, and then said to Andrew, *print*.

An English translation of Robert Koldewey's "Excavations at Babylon" has been prepared by Agnes S. Johns and published by the Macmillan Company ($5.25 net). It is sufficient to say that the translation has been carefully done and reads very smoothly. The book makes a very handsome appearance, though it is somewhat heavier than English

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

publications as a rule are. Many English readers will no doubt welcome the translation, which gives a most interesting survey of the important work done on the site of the ancient city of Babylon through the excavations conducted under the auspices of the German Orient Society for a period of over ten years. As a result of these excavations many architectural and archæological problems have been solved and also some historical material added to our knowledge of the later period of Babylonian history. The 255 illustrations and the several plans of the ancient city greatly enhance the value of this important contribution to Oriental archæology.

From the Imperial Japanese Government Railways, at Tokio, we have received the first three volumes of a very ambitious publication, to be known as An Official Guide to Eastern Asia, and intended to deal with Manchuria, China proper, Chosen or Korea, Japan, Farther India, and the "South Sea Islands" (Yokohama, Japan: Kelly & Walsh). Of the three volumes at hand the first deals with Manchuria and Chosen, the two others with Japan. A great deal of original investigation has gone into the making of the books. Where Baedeker can be reproduced in the East he is followed faithfully, down to the characterization of hotel bedrooms and the price of breakfast. The special value of the books is in their mass of gazetteer and statistical material, displayed with systematic thoroughness. There is a wealth of illustrations, both text cuts and full-page inserts, the latter of unusual merit.

In a recent study entitled "Paul's Doctrine of Redemption" (Macmillan; $1.25 net), Prof. H. B. Carré, a Methodist divine, presents the thesis that salvation to Paul is that future peaceful state of the universe in which God, having emerged successful in the cosmic conflict with his demonic adversaries such as Death, Sin, and Law, becomes all in all. The agent of redemption is Christ who dies not to expiate sins, but, by resurrection, to enter into a life of power in which, on the one hand, he wages warfare against the evil beings, and, on the other hand, enables frail humanity, hitherto powerless to cope with the supramundane demons, to sever relations with them, join forces with God, and finally, after the Advent of Christ, to be assimilated to the nature of God. The book is lucid and worth reading; but it is too brief to be convincing. We venture to hope that the author, who is obviously equipped for the task, will revise and enlarge the volume, amplifying the exegetical grounds for his main contention, and above all making good the present failure to discuss either Paul's contrast of Flesh and Spirit or the significant tradition, accepted by the Apostle, to the effect that "Christ died for our sins according to the Scriptures."

Into a volume of most agreeable reading, entitled "Vanishing Roads and Other Essays" (Putnam; $1.50 net), Mr. Richard Le Gallienne has collected some of his writings published from time to time in various magazines. The first essay names the book, presumably because "the vanishing road of a song in the air, the vanishing road of the spring flowers and the winter snows, the vanishing road of the winds and the streams, the vanishing road of beloved faces" pervades most of what follows. Whether it is a meditation on Christmas, or a visit to a long-ago frequented restaurant, or a tramp along an old American canal, or reflections on the snows of last year, or even the last call for the dining-car "suggestive of momentous opportunity fast slipping away," there is an ever-present consciousness of the unstable, transitory nature of all things earthly; not of necessity, however, tinged with sadness. "The Passing of Mrs. Grundy," for instance, prophesies with joyful belief the approaching demise of that (Mr. Le Gallienne to the contrary notwithstanding) not wholly unprofitable lady. Not so much because they are better than their companions, as because their subjects make a special appeal to readers, we may notice the essays, "The English Country Side," "On Rereading Walter Pater," "Fiona Macleod," and "Frédéric Mistral," and in quite different strain, but not the less to be valued, a sympathetic little story of a fox-terrier.

Some articles by Reuben E. Bakenhus, of the Navy Corps of Civil Engineers; Capt. Harry S. Knapp, of the Navy, and Prof. Emory R. Johnson, originally published in the Proceedings of the United States Naval Institute, have been collected into a volume entitled "The Panama Canal" (John Wiley & Sons; $2.50 net). The book deals in a matter-of-fact way with the history of the project, the construction of the waterway, the problem of sanitation, the effect of the canal upon the navy, its international status, and its commercial importance. Capt. Knapp scouts the idea that the canal will double the effectiveness of the navy, and holds that its effect in that direction "cannot be mathematically demonstrated." Another book in this field is W. Leon Pepperman's "Who Built the Panama Canal?" (Dutton; $2 net). The purpose of this volume is to remind the country that Theodore P. Shonts laid the foundation upon which Col. Goethals has builded so successfully, and to prevent the credit due the former from being swallowed up in that received by the latter. The book is full of pertinent and interesting detail, but its most valuable feature is the score of drawings by Joseph Pennell. Superior to either of these volumes as a comprehensive survey of the subject is Joseph Bucklin Bishop's "The Panama Gateway" (Scribner; $1.50 net), of which a new edition, the sixth, has been issued. As secretary of the Canal Commission, Mr. Bishop had unique opportunities for knowing about various matters, but his skill is shown also in his treatment of parts of the subject concerning which he had no such advantage, as in the story of the French effort and failure, which he tells most entertainingly. Yet his account is incomplete in places. A reader will search his pages in vain for an explanation of why we made the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. Mr. Bishop is content to recite one after another the list of treaties pertaining to a possible canal without stating, even briefly, the circumstances that led to them. Nor does he see anything wrong in our "taking" of the canal. Nevertheless, his book remains the leading one on the subject.

"The Notebook of an Attaché," by Eric Fisher Wood (Century; $1.60 net), gives many vivid sidelights on the war, and provides, in addition, the most understandable account of the battle of the Marne which has yet been printed. At the outbreak of the war Mr. Wood was a student at the Ecole des Beaux-Arts, in architecture. Casually noting the confusion that the care of the Germans and Austrians brought to the American Embassy, he offered his services. First he devoted himself to aiding our temporary wards, the harried Teutons in France. He carried dispatches to Germany and Austria. Immediately after the battle of the Marne he motored over the battlefields, and with the aid of the American military attaché read the vicissitudes of the fray from the wounded and dead, who still lay where they fell. These were great experiences, which Mr. Wood fortunately set down in letters and diaries, at the time. From these the book is woven together. It has the actuality of the best newspaper writing, more simplicity, and naturally more comprehensiveness. The tone is singularly just, though the frankness of some of the paragraphs might make a resumption of the author's diplomatic adventure a bit difficult. Not the least interesting pages are those devoted to Germany and Austria-Hungary in war time. The contrast between the rather ugly tension in Germany, where the author suffered something like persecution from police surveillance, and the generous hospitality which he everywhere received in Hungary, is very striking. In Hungary he was the guest of Count Apponyi, whose views on an ineluctable conflict between Slav and Teuton make reading more interesting than convincing. We can touch on only a few of the more attractive features of a book that is always vivid and at times thrilling. The author has risen well to exceptional opportunities. Few of the professional chroniclers have done as well. Fifteen photographs, mostly from the battlefield, and facsimiles of military passes, etc., give a documentary character to the fresh and ingenuous narratives.

As richly illustrated as its predecessors, the sixth volume of Professor Firth's edition of Macaulay's "History of England" (Macmillan; $3.25) comes to hand to complete the great undertaking. The total of illustrations reaches 900, of which forty-four are full-page plates in color. The latter include, in the final volume, pictures of Sir Isaac Newton, the Earl of Halifax, the Princess Anne, with her son, and three others, all from paintings in the National Portrait Gallery. In addition, there is the usual wealth of reproductions of plans, medals, portraits, scenes, broadsides, and cartoons, among them being St. Paul's Cathedral as it stood, half-completed, in 1695; Whitehall and its surroundings in 1724; the congratulatory poem "To the High and Mighty Czar of Muscovy," now known as Peter the Great, on the occasion of his arrival for a visit in England in January, 1697-8; a "List of the Seven Thousand Men" constituting "The Standing Forces of this Kingdom" in 1699, and a proclamation against pirates by the Lords Justices in 1696. The index is new, the old one being incomplete and in many items in error. The finished set constitutes a notable achievement, being not only a tribute to his popularity, of which Macaulay could not fail to be proud, but also a worthy memorial of British scholarship and bookmaking.

The first of the Harvard Studies in Education, "The Oberlehrer," by William Setchel Learned (Harvard University Press; $1.75), is an informing essay, attractively written, in spite of the remote suggestion of the doctor's thesis. Mr. Learned's review of the gradual rise of schoolmastership in Germany to the status of a dignified profession, and his account of the democratic conditions that pre-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

vail in the *Kollegium,* seem to show that American schools "need the benefit of German example." We may believe also that they are in some respects in advance of the schools in Germany. One wonders, however, whether the "standardization of curriculum" and "minute regulation of method," which, according to the author, hang like a leaden weight about the neck of the German schoolmaster to-day, are not, for the American schools, impending evils rather than evils from which they have been delivered.

The small volume of "African Adventure Stories" (Scribner; $1.50), by J. Alden Loring, one of the collectors who accompanied Roosevelt on his African expedition, is a rather heterogeneous collection of incidents and stories. Some of the former occurred on the expedition itself, and others rest on narratives told by various hunters or travellers. The reader is warned that the facts in the concluding seven chapters are at least "not improbable." The author's style is a free and easy one, unconnected, and amateurish as to vocabulary, but several of the chapters stand out in interest far above the general text. The account of the grass-fires is one of these, a less detailed but more personal sketch of the same incident which Roosevelt describes in his "African Game Trails." The method of shooting and observing animals with the jacklight at night is described in an interesting way, as is the "driving" of creatures which have taken shelter from the sun in dongas or clumps of brush. The most original chapter is entitled Wild Animals That I Have "Et."

A noteworthy bibliography of material bearing upon the antecedents of the war has been compiled under the direction of Hermann H. B. Meyer, chief bibliographer of the Library of Congress. The pamphlet is entitled "List of References on Europe and International Politics in Relation to Present Issues." It excludes the merely controversial literature that has appeared since the war began, but includes the official documents issued by the various governments. Consultation of the list is facilitated by grouping the titles under several headings in addition to divisions by countries, as "Growth of Nationalities," "Balance of Power," "Neutrality," "Marine Insurance," "Triple Alliance and Triple Entente," "Aerial Warfare and Law of the Air." The references are given without comment.

The "Tabular Views of Universal History" (Putnam; $2.50 net), which were originally compiled by George P. Putnam in 1832, under the title "The World's Progress," have been continued to the outbreak of the present war under the editorial supervision of George Haven Putnam. Their character is well indicated by the sub-title: "A series of chronological tables, presenting, in parallel columns, a record of the more noteworthy events in the history of the world from the earliest times down to the present day, together with an alphabetical index of subjects." There are also some mediocre maps, a few genealogical tables, and an ingenious chart picturing racial and national development since about 2500 B. C. More than a third of the text, however, with its parallel columns of events, relates to the last fifty years. So far as we have tested it, the book is fairly accurate in statement and judicial in selection, and therefore convenient for purposes of reference or of cramming.

Science

VOLCANISM.

The Problem of Volcanism. By Joseph P. Iddings. New Haven: Yale University Press. $5 net.

This book, embodying the substance of the Silliman Lectures at Yale University in 1914, attempts to present a theory of volcanism expressing current opinions on problems in petrology, geology, and astronomy. The author, trained in the Rocky Mountains in the service of the Geological Survey, has been for years professor of petrology in Chicago University and is the author of a well-known text on Igneous Rocks. After he has reviewed in the first chapter the phenomena of volcanism, including Mont Pelée, Krakatau, Kilauea, Taal, Perry Peak on Bogosloff Island (misnamed "Parry Island"), active volcanoes are dismissed, and ancient volcanic fields of Wyoming and Montana, of Massachusetts and Connecticut, come in for mention under the "phenomena" of volcanism. Thereafter, throughout the book, the author deals with cosmogonic and lithologic theory, until the last chapter, on the "extrusion of lavas," compels some further mention of the active vents. The author at the outset declares his intention of presenting the problem "rather than a theory or a supposed explanation of it."

In view of this statement, therefore, it is regrettable that the author deals so little with the empirical data now available concerning eruption, its mechanism, its progress, and its recurrence. The idea of evolution at a normal volcanic vent, following a definite sequence in accordance with comparatively uniform laws, has not presented itself to Dr. Iddings. In fact, the evolution and classification of volcanoes is not treated in this book, and the question, above quoted, of recurrence in the same region is not discussed as a prevalent characteristic of volcanicity on any other page.

Instead of being an unprejudiced expression of current opinion, this book is an expression of the biassed opinion of the inner circle of American petrologists and geologists who have produced the quantitative classification of rocks and the planetesimal theory. The principal references in the book are to Chamberlin, Gilbert, and Suess. There is no mention in the text of Mercalli, Omori, Brun, Brigham, Hitchcock, or Perret, and the new textbooks of von Wolff and Schneider are mentioned only in the bibliography. Dr. Iddings's conception of a volcano as a steam engine shows little advance beyond Scrope, Judd, Dana, Hull, and Bonney. The problems of gas-fluxing elaborated by Daly and Perret, two-phase convection, juvenile water, and differential ascensional force, are neglected, the rise of lava being considered a question of relief of pressure, and fracture induced by warping and flexure. There is no sufficient treatment of experimental volcanology in the field and laboratory, nc summary of problems to be solved in the study of active volcanoes, and the reader finishes the book with the antiquated notion that volcanoes are essentially dangerous and that the main sources of our information are the ancient rocks and the physico-chemical laboratory.

We learn that volcanic activity has not occurred at any one time in all parts of the earth, and that it breaks out in new localities at widely remote periods; "*in some instances*" (the italics are the reviewer's) "not to reappear in the same locality so far as our powers of observation go." Geikie is cited on recurrence of lavas in successive geologic ages in the British Isles, but this is apparently an exceptional case (p. 26), for as in the case of assimilation of sedimentary wall rock by magma, cited by Lacroix in the Pyrenees, it would not fit the theory of a heterogeneous earth to grant that volcanic recurrence and assimilation were general and widespread.

Nebular hypotheses are reviewed from Descartes to Chamberlin, and a severe indictment is brought of the shiftlessness of the average geologist. We are told that "a nebular hypothesis as to the origin of the solar system, and therefore of the earth, has come to be a widely accepted theory among geologists, who have restated it in various terms, in some instances with elemental simplicity and misleading terminology, not infrequently dignifying their invention by calling it the Laplacean hypothesis." We are further informed that the formulæ of geologists in this matter are some of them "as crudely simple as the cog wheels of a mechanical toy." One would suppose that Dr. Iddings believed himself to be the first geologist who ever took the trouble to look up the history of nebular theory and the work of modern astrophysicists. The chapter on nebulæ has in view the determination of how hot the interior of the earth is. Our author thinks there can never be direct means of observation of this. He speaks of the so-called "green" nebulæ as characterized by the bright spectral lines of *incandescent* gases (p. 40). On another page (44) he tells us that the luminosity "is probably not due to heat. Hydrogen and helium gases only exhibit spectra when excited electrically . . . . and the temperature of such nebulæ may be near absolute zero." We know nothing of the cause of the light of the white or spiral nebulæ; we know "by observation that the sun possesses such explosive energy that it projects jets of its substance thousands of miles from its surface at velocities greater than three hundred miles a second," and that it is analogous to some parts of these nebulæ; but after discussing various forms of the hypothesis of accretion for the origin of the earth, Dr. Iddings concludes that a nebular hypothesis "does not at this time furnish any basis for a determination of the temperature of the inner portion of the earth." Elsewhere we learn that "it appears to be quite possible that the temperature of the interior of the earth is not greater than that of the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

hottest volcanic lavas at the surface, from 1,000 degrees C. to 1,500 degrees C."

The thesis of Professor Iddings to account for the origin of the igneous rocks is that we must begin with a heterogeneous globe. This gives us opportunity for petrographical provinces of diversified rock composition. The earth is an elastic solid subject to accumulating stresses that periodically exceed the limit of elasticity and cohesion. An accretionary hypothesis permits the innermost part of the earth to have aggregated the heavier meteoric particles with lighter matter on the outer portions of the planet, but not uniformly, large nebular nuclei having fallen in to make the denser ocean basins. The central portion contracted through crystallization and chemical readjustment at varying rates, owing to heterogeneity, and warping or fracture took place for the same reason, permitting irregular release of pressure over a "pseudo-rigid" zone where fluidity is dependent upon pressure. Gases are acquired partly by dissociation, but more especially from wall rocks. The temperature of the magma is never very high, certainly never high enough to melt the wall rocks, except in rare instances. The diagrammatic sections of the lithosphere drawn by Dr. Iddings do not permit any batholithic bodies, such as granites, etc., to enlarge indefinitely downward into the substratum, but all are drawn as dikes or flat sheets bounded on both sides by wall rock.

A very singular inconsistency is exhibited in the discussion of the acquisition of new gas, especially water vapor, from the wall rocks. The author strenuously objects to intrusion by solution, because this would involve excessive localization of storage of heat, and he objects to the hypothesis of overhead stoping for the same reason; and without localization such heat in the zone of primitive magma would undermine the outer rock crust, or lithosphere. No such difficulty confronts him, however, when it comes to dissolving gases in magma. In spite of the relatively low temperature of magma, by his hypothesis, and the acknowledged poor conductors that rocks make, "the contact of molten magma with rocks containing water necessarily involves the conversion of water into gas at high pressure, and the absorption of a large part of the gas by magma. Nothing can prevent its entering the magma but impermeable wall rocks and a higher vapor pressure within the magma." Johnston has completely disposed of Daubrée's percolation theory, but nevertheless "at considerable depths, where water-charged rocks are under great pressures, the heating to magma temperatures should produce water-gas at a very high vapor pressure, and there should be a flow of gas into the magma, which may completely dissolve it."

In view of the conclusion above stated, that the earth's interior is not possibly hotter than 1,500 degrees C., the following comment in the discussion of liquid lavas seems somewhat inconsistent: "Some have been seen to issue from orifices at white heat, about 1,500 degrees C. How much hotter they may be at considerable distances below the surface of the earth, before entering the cooling zone, there is no direct means of knowing." This appears to be an acknowledgment that there is a cooling zone far below the scene of volcanic outflow, which would imply that the lavas emerging at 1,500 degrees C. are already considerably cooled. Why, then, lay stress on so improbable an hypothesis as that the whole earth's interior is no hotter than these lavas merely because extrapolation on discordant curves of thermal gradient is inaccurate? There are many reasons based on our knowledge of the sun, of volcanoes, of geology, and of the well-considered opinions of conservative astronomers and physicists, for agreeing with Arrhenius that the interior of the globe probably possesses a temperature of many thousand degrees centigrade. The argument of Dr. Iddings is merely the death-struggle of a school of thought which combats the doctrine of assimilation.

Chapter IV, on the petrology of the earth, is a useful summary of up-to-date work concerning the physical character of rocks and rock minerals, their melting points, and the arrangement of rocks in comagmatic series. The statement (p. 90) that hardness and rigidity are identical is questionable, as hardness is a composite quality. The repetition of the oft-quoted "white heat" of Mauna Loa lava is probably a repetition of error. The discussion (pp. 109-112) of the hypothesis of assimilation-differentiation and its brief dismissal show ignorance of the hypothesis and great unfairness towards Professor Daly, of Harvard, who is not even cited.

The work of Day and Shepherd in collecting gases at Kilauea is extraordinarily misapplied in direct opposition to the conclusions of these authors. On page 7 it is stated that "the clouds of vapor that rise from craters and lava streams are mostly water-vapor. . . . Other gases are abundant in some instances, but from the nature of eruptions little has been learned or will ever be discovered, from observation and investigation" of craters. "From the lava pool of Kilauea, whose surface temperature is about 1,000 degrees C., water-gas should issue much above its critical point and pass into the tropical air, however moist, without producing clouds." Does this mean that when the relative humidity of the atmosphere on Kilauea is 100 per cent., as it frequently is, more water-vapor may be added to it without showing as a cloud of condensed moisture? Day and Shepherd are cited as having collected water-gas in abundance along with other gases, but these authors clearly acknowledge that the relative proportion of water-gas is still in doubt. They also consider the assemblage of gases collected as deep-seated in origin, yet Dr. Iddings cites them (p. 173) on heating effects in combinations of gases "acquired from wall rocks," and "from near the earth's surface and sedimentary strata." Dr. Iddings takes very little account of juvenile gases as agents in the heating and ascension of lava, though he does acknowledge in one place (p. 244) "that most of the characteristics of extrusion, apart from the eruption of great volumes of lava, are attributable to the action of gases." But it is exactly what he here excepts, eruption of lava, that modern thought is coming to discern as due to a convectional foaming under gas pressure. He even explicitly denies this on page 245.

He states that there is a striking analogy between the behavior of lavas and that of geysers; but in the discussion this resemblance proves to be purely a superficial one. "In the eruption of lava from volcanic craters the explosive agent is the gas within the lava, which is in fact the vapor of the lava, *just as steam is the vapor of water*." (The italics are the reviewer's.) This would seem to mean that the boiling point of magma were reached somewhere in the depths, but then the author goes on to explain that silicate compounds are only slightly vaporizable, that the chief gases are other things, and virtually that the explosive agent is not the vapor of lava, and is in no wise comparable to the vapor of water. The long-overworked comparison with the geyser could not be more effectually refuted than in this "striking analogy," which his own discussion destroys when it turns out that a temperature is needed far in excess of what the author will allow.

This discussion ends with the statement that the explosions of Krakatau and of Taal and Pelée were the result of the influx of water to contact with molten lava, and that the birth of a new volcano is probably occasioned by the access of molten magma to underground reservoirs of water. There is not the slightest proof of these things, and abundant evidence in the quiet activity of submarine lavas that the forces of volcanism are actuated otherwise.

The hopelessness of the author's point of view concerning the science of volcanoes is expressed in the statement (p. 236) that while something of the life history of a volcano may be made out from new outbreaks, active cones, and eroded sections, still "there may be infinite variety in the experience of volcanoes in different localities." Ours would certainly be a heterogeneous earth if this were true. Fortunately, modern volcanology is finding order in this seeming chaos by realizing that the variety of volcanoes is far from infinite, that the volcanic process is remarkably uniform, and that the differences are evolutionary stages of growth.

The failure to conceive succession of volcanic cycles for the same region, along with misinformation about certain regions, has led our author to the conviction that early volcanic activity in a given region is explosive, while the later stages produce fluent lava. This is singularly at variance with the probabilities of terrestrial history and with the evidence of geological history treated by volcanic cycles for the same region.

It is unfortunate that the author of this

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

book was not more familiar with the Hawaiian volcanoes. On page 239 he writes: "At Kilauea explosive eruptions from the crater are almost unknown, certainly none of considerable magnitude, but lateral eruptions of non-explosive lava frequently break out upon its slopes, and also on those of Mauna Loa; however, parasitic cones are rarely formed." Again, "the play of fountains of lava within crater pools (p. 245), which occasionally occurs at Kilauea." In fact, Kilauea is a tremendously explosive volcano at long intervals. Great ash-beds lie within the lava flows of the crater walls, and the explosion of 1790 was comparable with that of Mount Pelée in 1902 and similarly destroyed human life. Lateral eruptions of lava are rare at Kilauea, but common on Mauna Loa. Parasitic cones are common on both volcanoes, and are nearly always formed at the sources of the lava flows. Lava fountains have been continuous features of the activity of Kilauea in the nineteenth century throughout the time that it has maintained lava pools in the crater; they are invariably present on Mauna Loa when that volcano is active. In both volcanoes the emission of vast quantities of gas is a constant feature of lava activity.

Even within his own field of petrology, in dealing with the texture and composition of rocks, the author of this book seems to be pessimistic about finding orderly relations. "No distinctions can be discovered between rocks solidified under different pressures or at different depths; consequently, distinctions that were formerly supposed to characterize rocks as 'plutonic' or 'volcanic' have been found to be inappropriate and without actual significance." This wonderful assertion marks the climax of hopelessness, left in the mind of the young student who may read this book. It is an assertion which either aims at sensationalism, or is designed to enforce the conclusions of the four petrographers, Professor Iddings among their number, who tried to secure general acceptance of their so-called "quantitative classification of the igneous rocks."

The writer of this review regrets the polemical attitude which he has taken in this notice of a book which is bound to excite discussion because of the distinction of its author and the excellence of his achievements in petrology. But any other attitude on the part of a reviewer would be hypocrisy in one trained to an eclectic point of view, and in view of the author's professed intention of expressing *current opinions* on volcanism. This book, von Wolff's "Vulkanismus," and Daly's "Origin of the Igneous Rocks," are the three works of the year that bring up to date the growth of science on this topic of geology, and von Wolff's book is the only one of the three which is unbiassed and more or less encyclopædic. The books of Daly and Iddings are diametrically opposed; both show scholarship of high order, both claim eclecticism, and both represent extreme schools. Dr. Iddings in *Science* has seen fit to criticise Dr. Daly's book as dangerous in its departure from accepted ideals of geology and likely to lead students astray. Just the same danger lies in his own production, which he modestly recommends in that review as a model of conservatism, when in reality it is radical in the extreme in its doctrine of a cool, heterogeneous, planetesimal earth and non-volcanic moon, and it is narrow in its insistence on steam absorption from wall rock and steam explosion; it is out of date in its neglect of modern volcanology, and of a rational evolutionism in volcanicity, and it is unduly pessimistic in seeing no hope of ever making experimental conquest of the facts concerning the temperatures, pressures, and gases of the inner earth.

Dr. L. Doncaster's book on "The Determination of Sex" (Putnam) is meant for the "untrained reader." It starts out, indeed, in a very elementary way, with simple definitions of protoplasm and other biological terms, but the reader is soon confronted with a variety of generic names and special cases of sexual and asexual reproduction, with rather complicated schemata attached, that requires some concentration to follow intelligently. The book gives a good account of all the recent important work upon the determination of sex, but the author is apparently less enthusiastic than most recent writers in the acceptance of some of these results. He still finds it worth while to discuss seriously such theories as the alternate discharge of male-determining and female-determining ova from the ovaries, and the influence of external conditions in modifying or determining the sex of the fertilized ovum. The glossary at the end of the book is not so helpful as it should be. Some of the definitions might be greatly improved, both in clearness and accuracy, those of hormone and interstitial tissues, for example.

By the first term of Percy E. Davidson's title, "The Recapitulation Theory and Human Infancy" (Teachers Coll., Columbia University; $1 net), is meant, in Haeckel's terminology, that the outgoing or development of the individual is a short and rapid recapitulation of the evolution of the race. As applied to the psychical or psycho-physical side it implies that as the individual develops he will rehearse in chronological order the chief stages of the psycho-physical evolution of the animal phylum to which he belongs. This theory in its bearing upon human infancy is discussed carefully by the author, but not in a luminous or interesting way. He rejects the theory so far as the interpretation of human infancy is concerned, but his own conclusion that infancy is "the ancient structure of maturity . . . shorn of and supplemented by those things which plasticity presupposes" is difficult to comprehend clearly, except possibly by the professional psychologist.

Volume III of Prof. L. H. Bailey's "Standard Cyclopedia of Horticulture" (Macmillan; $6) covers the subjects from F through K. There are more than 500 large pages and about that number of figures. These statements will indicate the widened scope of this valuable treatise, which bears at every point the marks of great editorial skill. This work, in its earlier edition, has been reviewed with commendation in previous numbers of the *Nation*, and we can now merely add that, in its new form, it has not lost any of its good features. Like all cyclopædias, it is bulky and somewhat inconvenient, but this cannot be helped. It is trustworthy and exhaustive, and meets every need of the commercial and the professional cultivator of garden plants. More than this, it is admirably adapted to the more exacting requirements of the amateur.

The Missouri Botanical Garden, at St. Louis, has published for more than twenty years an annual report which gave a full account of the activities of the institution. Hereafter, the annual report will appear under an entirely new form. The reports of the officers of the board of trustees, and of the director, will be given in monthly bulletins, while the results of the scientific work at the Garden, by its staff, by advanced students in the contiguous Washington University, and by visiting botanists, will appear in a quarterly publication, to be known as the *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden*. Four of these quarterly numbers, bound together in a substantial volume of 432 pages, now appear as Volume I, and cover the scientific contributions for the year 1914. The range is wide, the volume is well printed, well indexed, and well illustrated.

Until the appearance of Carlton Ellis's "The Hydrogenation of Oils" (Van Nostrand; $4 net) the literature on hydrogenation had been scattered through many periodicals, and the author has performed a valuable service in collecting, arranging, and editing the considerable mass of material. The first two chapters give in chronological order the methods which have been proposed for hydrogenation. Catalyzers and the part they play in the process are then discussed, and, after a chapter on the analytical constants of hydrogenated oils, their general characters and uses are described. There follows a very full description of the practical methods for producing hydrogen for the hardening of oil—from water gas, hydrocarbons, by steam or acids on metals, by electrolysis, etc. Full reference to the original articles and to the many patents is made, and the work closes with an Appendix on the litigation over patents of hydrogenated oil. The author is well known, and among the many patents which he has taken out seventeen relating to the hydrogenation of oils are cited in this volume. He has included in his text virtually all that has been advanced on the subject, but has avoided critical comment as inadvisable at this stage of a young and rapidly growing process. As he remarks: "A few years hence, when oil hydrogenation will have found its measure and the more important points have reached definite settlement," much of the material here presented "may be considered superfluous." The publishers have produced a well-made and handsomely printed book, which, like their "Industrial Chemistry," is made unnecessarily heavy by their choice of paper.

A fifth edition of the second volume of Professor Minchin's "Treatise on Statics" has been issued by the Oxford Press under the editorship of H. T. Gerrans. The work has been recognized as a standard treatise for so long a time that it is necessary merely to note the changes in this new edition. For the most part, they consist in omitting certain sections which were somewhat irrelevant and in adding more than five hundred problems as an appendix.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Drama

"HANDS UP."

In presenting this piece at the Forty-fourth Street Theatre the Shuberts have done a signal service in defining a summer review. On the programme "Hands Up" is announced as a "musico-comico-filmo-melo-drama," and this is so complete that the present reviewer feels much of his task has been done for him. Mention should, at least, be made of the fact that the cast is an attractive one, including Maurice and Florence Walton, Ralph Herz, Irene Franklin, Burton Green, and Bobby North. The management, however, has evidently found difficulty in meting out due measure to each of these important people, and the result is that "Hands Up" runs well into the fourth hour, which is too long. There is a great deal of wholesome fun in the piece, and particular mention may be made of an excellent bit of burlesque by Mr. Herz, Miss Franklin, and George Hassel. A novelty of the entertainment is a scene called "The Animated Screen," in which the effect of the cinema is acted out. The costumes and the settings are remarkably good, and the chorus is all that the chorus of a summer review should be. L.

In the thin and unpretentious little volume entitled "Homeric Scenes," by John Jay Chapman (Lawrence J. Gomme; 60 cents), is contained choice literary and scholarly work. Mr. Chapman has taken episodes from the Homeric story and recast them in dramatic dialogue, in which the tone and spirit of the original text are preserved with singular felicity, notwithstanding the flavoring of modern thought with which they are occasionally spiced. He divides them in two parts, "Hector's Farewell" and "The Wrath of Achilles." In the first, which is very brief, Hector, prescient of fate, but gallant and undismayed, bids a cheery, tender adieu to Andromache and his infant son, and proceeds to the fatal field. The second contains six short scenes in which the closing incidents of Achilles's career are compactly but effectively set forth. Thus, at the instance of Ulysses, who represents the peril of the Greeks in a vigorous speech, Agamemnon is induced to make reparation to Achilles, who is sulking in his tent, and to restore Briseis. Achilles, however, is not to be appeased, either by the crafty, flattering argument of Ulysses or by the intercession of his old nurse, Phœnix. He resents the proffered bribe and vows that he will sail with his ships on the morrow. Then Antilochus brings news of the death of Patroclus, through the direct intervention of Apollo, and Achilles, bent on instant vengeance, proclaims his reconciliation with the hated Atreidæ, and hurries to gird on the new armor provided by his mother Thetis. The scene of reconciliation, as described by Thersites, is one of the most notable passages in the book. In the following episode the terrible strife of gods and men, about Scamander, and the death of Hector, are described in vivid and sonorous lines by Antilochus and another messenger, to Briseis and others, until Achilles returns, bloody and war-worn, to sacrifice his captives and give the body of Hector to the dogs. From this purpose he is dissuaded, first by the ghost of Patroclus, who prays for instant burial, and secondly by a visit from old Priam, whose pathetic appeal moves him to mercy and generous treatment of his fallen foe, as he meditates upon his own imminent death. The final scene shows him stark upon his bier, with Thetis mourning over him. Literary and descriptive as the little piece is, in the main, it is not devoid of dramatic possibilities, and it might even be effective in the theatre if actors capable of speaking it and interpreting it in the proper heroic mood could be found. It is most notable, however, for the purity and vigor of its English. The blank verse is robust and rhythmical, and a word of special recognition is due to the prose of Thersites, which is of Elizabethan quality and charged with vitriolic humor. Mr. Chapman, of course, had a rich well of inspiration to draw from, but his success in preserving the spirit of his original, in condensed and original paraphrase, is a praiseworthy achievement.

An interesting study of the varying fortunes of the monologue or dramatic soliloquy is given in Dr. Erwin W. Roessler's "The Soliloquy in German Drama" (Columbia University Press; $1 net). This dramatic convention, after a glorious career, suffered an ignominious ending in the final decades of the nineteenth century, owing to the influence of Ibsen and other naturalistic forces. The author distinguishes, on the one hand, the *expositional soliloquy*, a crude makeshift which has been a device too much favored in the German drama, and on the other hand the reflective, deliberative, emotional soliloquy, whose disappearance he thinks is much to be regretted. The soliloquy, of course, flourished amid the naïve crudities of the old Shrovetide plays, and the Renaissance tradition did not dislodge it. The first reaction came from the pseudo classicism of the eighteenth century. Gottsched, influenced by arguments of common-sense and by the sparing use of the monologue in the later plays of Corneille, was resolutely hostile to it. It was probably in conscious opposition to Gottsched's precepts that Lessing reinstated the soliloquy, attempting at the same time to make it more realistic. Goethe and Schiller accepted the convention unquestioningly without worrying over its naturalness. Dr. Roessler points out, however, that Schiller, in particular, vitalized the soliloquy by such elements of dialogue as apostrophe, questions and answers, exclamations, etc. In the nineteenth century most of the leading German dramatists employed the monologue unhesitatingly. We find it, for instance, abundantly in Grillparzer and excessively in Hebbel, where the frequency of soliloquies and asides is in keeping with the author's proneness to morbid introspection and self-analysis. Kleist is the only notable exception to this ready acquiescence until our own generation is reached, when the technique of Ibsen becomes dominant. The author observes that the characters in Ibsen do not seem to suspect that they are characters in a drama performed for an audience. Hence they do not proclaim themselves except through the natural channel of dialogue. This achievement is all the more noteworthy since the construction of Ibsen's plays, which generally begin with the catastrophe, inevitably tempts the playwright to the use of the clumsy expositional soliloquy. The influence of Ibsen in these matters is apparent upon Sudermann and Hauptmann. But, as the writer points out, Hauptmann in his desire to avoid the artificial device of the soliloquy has usurped the prerogatives of the novel by employing the epic method. His stage directions frequently make impossible demands on the actors, are, in fact, intended for his readers. What actor, for example, is chameleon enough to interpret the direction "Seine Farbe wechselt oft," which occurs in "Das Friedensfest"? Facial expression or pantomime is substituted for the old emotional soliloquy, and the result is a loss of clearness and no gain in naturalness. Dr. Roessler's conclusion is that, since the performance of a play rests upon conventions, it is absurd for the stage to attempt to be a faithful copy of life. Granted that the old expositional soliloquy was a slovenliness the departure of which none will regret, it is nevertheless a pity that the soliloquy of thought and feeling has been eliminated so completely from the contemporary drama. This well-arranged little monograph is valuable for the miscellaneous information which it furnishes, and for the reflection which it stimulates.

Two years ago Mr. Alfred Noyes wrote a little one-act play called "Rada," an imaginary episode of the war in the Balkans. That was little better than a pot-boiler, a lurid, sentimental, but not ineffective bit of melodrama of no particular distinction. "A Belgian Christmas Eve" (Stokes) is the same story, rewritten and greatly expanded, with the scene laid in Belgium during the present European upheaval, and is a much more ambitious and thoughtful piece of work, with poetic qualities to which the earlier version could lay no claim. As drama it is somewhat tricky and conventional, but the literary execution is vigorous, and, in places, carries a note of genuine inspiration. The victorious German hosts are running wild in a Belgian village. Two privates, university men, having killed the local physician, have billeted themselves in his home on Christmas Eve. With cynical jocularity, quoting Schopenhauer and Nietzsche, they strive to rally the despairing widow, Rada, who, they are convinced, is trying to conceal something from them. Finally, an old half-witted schoolmaster, Nanko, a pensioner of the doctor, innocently betrays the fact that Rada's little twelve-year-old daughter, Bettine, is asleep in the bedroom. Then Rada throws herself on their mercy, and, while she is speaking, the child enters in her nightgown. The soldiers, melted by her innocence—this is a true and gracious touch—play Santa Claus and affect to join her in a Christmas Tree festival. But the party is disturbed by the irruption of a band of other drunken soldiers, who have seen the female figures through the window and are bent on outrage. The two students try to defend Rada, who has concealed herself in her bedroom, but the intruders proceed to batter down the door, and the woman shoots herself and her child, while the thunder of advancing guns tells of the approach of the British forces. The dramatic incidents are virtually identical with those in the earlier piece, and, as has been intimated, have too strong a savor of the purely theatrical in their calculated contrasts and somewhat trite sentiment to carry the impress of reality. The dialogue is of a much superior order. The prose spoken by the soldiers is vital, rugged stuff, and much of the blank verse in which Rada's protests and appeals are couched has a fine swing and is charged with pathos, scorn, and passion. It is to the half-crazed Nanko, however, that

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

some of the most poetic lines are allotted. He has a fine description of the great Belgian cities, and his long soliloquy with which the play closes—outside the chamber from which the blood of Rada is trickling—is strikingly imaginative in thought and expression. But, after all, the noblest English in the play is the Biblical story of the Nativity which the child Bettine, with a curious disregard of the probable, is made to recite before her Christmas Tree. Mr. Noyes is at his best, perhaps, in his "Dedication," in which a solemn thought is expressed with dignified simplicity, and in his epilogue, which, breathing a prayer that the war may bring about an era of human liberty, is inspired by a noble spirit of comprehension and tolerance.

Finance

"MUNITIONS CONTRACTS."

In a very extraordinary way, all the speculative interest on the Stock Exchange of last week converged on stocks of manufacturing companies, who have taken "war munitions contracts." One day last week, at the height of the week's speculation, 75 per cent. of the day's transactions on the Stock Exchange was in shares of industrial companies subject to such influences. Stocks in which the average daily trading, four or five months ago, was only a few hundred shares, on several days were dealt in to an amount twenty times as large as such stocks as Union Pacific or Reading. In one of these stocks, which had not changed hands at all on the New York Stock Exchange until three months ago, 90,000 shares were sold on a single day.

The spectacle is not new to Wall Street, though unfamiliar during recent years. It is one of those well-known phenomena which occur when the public and the stock exchanges are in a gambling mood, when money is easy and the outsiders' surplus funds abundant, when something has happened to set on fire the popular imagination regarding the prospects of a given group of stocks, and when—this is not the least important condition—surrounding circumstances are such that the buyer cannot ascertain the exact facts of earnings possibilities, and therefore may picture what his own enthusiasm suggests. It is the case of the railway shares in 1901 and 1902, when nobody knew the limit of the "buying for control."

Is there, then, no way of throwing any light on prospective profits from the "munitions contracts"? One fact in the matter, not without significance, is that no responsible manager of any company now engaging in the munitions business, has in a single instance made any statement bearing out the extravagant Wall Street expectations. Only two official statements have been made. At the annual meeting of Bethlehem Steel shareholders, on April 6, President Schwab remarked:

> The matter of paying dividends on the common stock has not even been considered by the management. There were years when we paid no dividends on the preferred stock. I shall maintain the same policy regarding the common stock while funds of the company are needed for its development.

The other statement, published last week, came from a member of the executive committee of the Crucible Steel:

> I can see no reason why the common stock of the company should be able to pay dividends for a good many years.

Wall Street laid more stress on a remark in the second of these statements, that, on the company's $15,000,000 munition contracts the profit might be $5,000,000 to $6,000,000 "providing everything goes according to calculation." Supposing Wall Street's favorite estimate of $1,500,000,000 for such contracts in the aggregate to be correct, that rate would mean a profit of more than $500,000,000 for the American manufacturers. But the experienced part of Wall Street hesitated to jump at that conclusion.

Why? In the first place, because the estimate of orders placed is itself doubtful. A good part of the orders has certainly duplicated itself in the calculation. Orders have been sub-let by original contractors, and the process has frequently been repeated by the sub-contractors. In the market's estimates, which do not always distinguish between the processes, the total of the sub-let orders has been constantly added to the original contract of which it was a part. Nor have original contracts been free from exaggerations. Stock Exchange estimators had named for the Crucible Steel, for instance, an aggregate of more than $60,000,000 war contracts, some going as high in their estimates even as $150,000,000. Last week those orders were officially stated as $15,000,000.

But even supposing the estimate of $1,500,000,000 to be correct; what then? One offset to calculated profits is the possibility of strikes for increased wages. Another is the chance of rejections, on the part of foreign buyers, of shells, cartridges, guns, or rifles, which are turned out, but do not meet specifications. One company which lately entered the munition business had a large consignment of rifles (possibly 100,000) thus rejected this very week.

But the most impressive factor of uncertainty lies in the unfamiliarity of the American manufacturers with the business to which they have unexpectedly diverted their machinery. The *Iron Age*, commenting editorially on the caution required in booking contracts of the sort, cites this case in point:

> A business man whose contract for shells looked like 100 per cent. profit when it was taken, now says that so many unexpected hindrances to rapid and efficient production have turned up that he may not make a dollar.

Further:

> A machine-tool manufacturer, who sublet parts of his machine to increase production, scrapped the first batch of parts he received in its entirety, and cancelled the contract.

The chairman of an English company whose machinery had been thus diverted from its ordinary purposes reported to his shareholders that this "sudden influx of work with which we were unfamiliar has resulted in a falling off in the money value of the output"—that is to say, the profit was less than that of the company's ordinary business. On the whole, a safe conclusion is that Wall Street will know a good deal more about "munitions contracts" twelve months hence than it knows to-day.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Chambers, R. W. Athalie. Appleton. $1.40 net.
Holgar, P. From the Shelf. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Hunt, V. The House of Many Mirrors. Brentano's. $1.35 net.
Stratton-Porter, G. Michael O'Halloran. Doubleday, Page. $1.35 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Haverfield, Prof. F. Roman Britain in 1914. Oxford University Press. 2s. 6d. net.
International Crisis in its Ethical and Psychological Aspects. Lectures delivered by E. M. Sidgwick and Others. Oxford University Press. 3s. 6d. net.
The Wayfarers Library.. 40 volumes. Dutton. 40 cents net each.

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY.

Charles, C. An Attempt to Recover the Original Order of the Text of Revelation. Oxford University Press.
Cox, J. C. Pulpits, Lecterns, and Organs in English Churches. Oxford University Press. 7s. 6d. net.
Macnicol, N. The Religious Quest of India: Indian Theism. Oxford University Press. 6s. net.
Stevenson, Mrs. S. The Heart of Jainism. Oxford University Press. 6s. net.
Stork, T. B. The Will in Ethics. Sherman, French. $1.25 net.
Vanderbyll, H. R. Challenging a God. Sherman, French. $1 net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Clark, W. E. The Cost of Living. McClurg. 50 cents net.
Crowell, J. F. Trusts and Competition. McClurg. 50 cents net.
Henderson, C. R. Citizens in Industry. Appleton. $1.50 net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Eydoux-Démians, M. In a French Hospital. Duffield. $1 net.
German Culture: The Contribution of the Germans to Knowledge, Literature, Art, and Life. Edited by Prof. W. P. Paterson. Scribner.
Hansbrough, H. C. War and Woman. Duffield. $1 net.
Irwin, W. Men, Women, and War. Appleton. $1 net.
Mitchell, P. C. Evolution and the War. Dutton. $1 net.

POETRY.

Book of Latin Verse. Collected by H. W. Garrod. Oxford University Press. 3s. 6d. net.
Caldwell, W. M. Pan's Reeds, and Other Verse. Privately Printed.
Cammell, C. Casus Belli. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Cromwell, G. The Gates of Utterance. Sherman, French. 80 cents net.

SCIENCE.

Baynes, E. H. Wild Bird Guests. Dutton. $2 net.
De Voe, W. Healing Currents From the Battery of Life. Vita Publishing Company. $1.50 net.
Drury, H. B. Scientific Management. Vol. LXV. No. 2. Longmans, Green.
Publications of the Astronomical Observatory of the University of Michigan. Vol. 1. Ann Arbor: By the Society.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

TEXTBOOKS.

Jaeck, E. G. Madame de Staël and the Spread of German Literature. Oxford University Press.

Jones, H. C. Electrical Nature of Matter and Radioactivity. Third edition. Van Nostrand. $2 net.

Méras, A. A. and B. Le Premier Livre. American Book Co.

Readings from Literature. Edited by R. P. Halleck and E. G. Barbour. American Book Co.

Swift, E. J. Learning by Doing. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.

JUST READY

THE CAMPAIGN OF 1914 IN FRANCE AND BELGIUM

A narrative of the land war in the West for those who are tired of sensational and even of heroic stories, but want to know just what happened and why and how.

By G. H. PERRIS

With Thirty Maps and Plans. $1.50 net.

"By far the fullest and most valuable account we have yet had of the war on the western front. Most vivid and well-informed." — *London Correspondence to the Boston Transcript.*

HENRY HOLT AND CO. 34 W. 33d St. New York

PUBLISHERS OF

THE UNPOPULAR REVIEW

THE SURVEY

Social Invention in Present Day Problems

That phrase sets off just what The Survey does. It draws its material from men who are getting at things in practical ways. Are you interested in

Civics
Health
Industry
Education
Recreation
Unemployment
Social Service

The Survey will bring to you the latest news of the problems in these fields that are commanding the attention of men who mould conditions and make public opinion.

The price of The Survey is $3 a year, but we will give to any reader of The Nation a thirteen weeks' trial subscription for 50c.

SURVEY ASSOCIATES, Inc.,
105 East 22d Street, New York, N. Y.

Chemistry of Familiar Things

By SAMUEL SCHMUCKER SADTLER, S.B. 23 illustrations and 6 figures in the text. $1.75 net.

"A compendium of useful information . . . absorbing and interesting. A book which should be found on every library shelf . . ."—*PHILADELPHIA EVENING LEDGER.*

J. B. LIPPINCOTT COMPANY

Studies in History, Economics and Public Law

Edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University.

THE SOVEREIGN COUNCIL OF NEW FRANCE

A Study in Canadian Constitutional History. By RAYMOND DU BOIS CAHALL, Ph.D., One-time Fellow in Modern European History, Columbia University; Acting Assistant Professor of European History and Government, Miami University. 8vo. Paper Covers. Pp. 274. $2.25.

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO., Publishers

Your Investments

You need more information about securities than you get from the dailies—or from brokers' literature.

THE MAGAZINE OF WALL STREET

in each fortnightly issue gives you eighty pages of *reliable* financial news and opinions—written for *you* in plain, untechnical language.

The INQUIRY DEPARTMENT answers any questions about your investments—present or prospective.

Copies are for sale on news stands throughout the country at fifteen cents—or mention THE NATION and we will send you the next *eight issues for a dollar bill.*

THE MAGAZINE OF WALL STREET
42 Broadway, New York

Read
L. M. Montgomery's new "ANNE" book
ANNE OF THE ISLAND
A SEQUEL TO
"ANNE OF GREEN GABLES" *310th thousand*
"ANNE OF AVONLEA" *109th thousand*

By Georges Sorel
REFLECTIONS ON VIOLENCE
This great classic, the philosophical basis of Syndicalism, may now be obtained in English. *Price $2.25 net, weight 22 oz.*

B. W. HUEBSCH, Publisher, 225 Fifth avenue, N. Y.

Read
The World in the Crucible
By SIR GILBERT PARKER,
The well-known novelist and member of Parliament
AT ALL BOOKSTORES, $1.50 net.
DODD, MEAD & CO., NEW YORK

OUR COMPLETE CATALOGUE
of publications in science, philosophy, and literature will be sent to any address on request.
The UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS, CHICAGO, ILL.

Lee's Dispatches
1862-65.
From the Private Collection of Wymberley Jones de Renne.
Edited with an Introduction by Douglas Southall Freeman.
8°. $3.75 net.

The unpublished dispatches of General Robert E. Lee, C. S. A., to Jefferson Davis and the War Department of the Confederate States of America.

Confidential communications with President Davis and the Confederate War Department, printed from originals which were kept by President Davis, lost, recovered, and kept for a generation in the private library of a Southerner.

ALL BOOKSELLERS
New York **G. P. Putnam's Sons** London

"At McCLURG'S"

It is of interest and importance to Librarians to know that the books reviewed and advertised in this magazine can be purchased from us at advantageous prices by

Public Libraries Schools, Colleges and Universities

In addition to these books we have an exceptionally large stock of the books of all publishers—a more complete assortment than can be found on the shelves of any other book-store in the entire country. We solicit correspondence from librarians unacquainted with our facilities.

LIBRARY DEPARTMENT

A. C. McCLURG & CO.
CHICAGO

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

Lists of publications in sciences, philosophy, philology, history, economics, will be sent upon request.

The University of California Press
BERKELEY, CAL.

M. A. B. (Mainly About Books)

An illustrated monthly magazine containing excerpts and specimen illustrations from the best new English Books, literary gossip and authors' photographs. A copy will be sent to you post free for twelve months on receipt of 50 cents.

T. FISHER UNWIN, Ltd.,
1 Adelphi Terrace, London, England

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED